

**SITUATING ACADEMIC CULTURE AND STRUCTURE WITHIN THE
POLICY PROCESS OF ACADEMIC REORGANIZATION**

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Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
The School of Education in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

University of Pittsburgh

2016

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

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This study's purpose was to gain an understanding of how academic culture and structure are positioned within the policy process of academic reorganization. The growing practice of academic reorganization at colleges and universities in the United States often involves the dismantling of traditional academic departments, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars within disciplines, and the resultant reduction in faculty serving as department chairs.

The results of content analysis of documents associated with academic restructuring at three institutions revealed that academic structure was perceived as an obstacle to the achievement of each institution's respective goals. Thus, restructuring was undertaken as a solution to a problem and as a tactic to achieve an institutional strategy. The results suggest that some faculty and administrators share the belief that academic structure may be less of an obstacle to institutional goals than organizational culture, and that institutional goals could likely be achieved without significant changes to the academic structure *if* attention is paid to issues of culture. Most often, the problematic issues associated with culture have to do with the perception of inequality of levels of respect among the disciplines.

Themes that emerged from the content analysis and the application of a theoretical model of policy process include: (1) the portrayal of academic culture and structure as hindrances to institutional goals, and the resultant degradation of faculty governance and advocacy; (2) the value placed on actions described as the corporatization of the university in the quest to enhance revenue generation and academic reputation; and (3) the opening of a policy window for academic restructuring vis-à-vis actions by the respective institution's Boards of Trustees.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I first wish to acknowledge and thank the faculty and staff, past and present, of the State University of New York Empire State College (ESC), whence I earned a bachelor's and master's degree as an adult, working full-time and starting a family. The mission of ESC has always been to enable motivated students to earn a degree regardless of location or life circumstances; nontraditional students were and continue to be the norm, not the exception, at ESC. Over the course of earning two degrees, ESC always fit my lifestyle as well as my ethos.

I thank the University of Pittsburgh for giving me the opportunity to grow personally and professionally, as an employee and as a student. I thank my colleagues and friends at the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs (GSPIA) for encouraging me throughout this undertaking.

My dissertation committee members were inspiring and supportive in ways big and small. Thank you for consenting to be on my committee, and for your commitment and dedication to students and the cause of higher education.

To my children, Jonathan and Courtney, thank you for your encouragement and understanding, especially as I spent precious free time reading or writing papers. To my husband, Les, yes, this means I'm done! "Thank you" isn't enough to convey my appreciation for your support lo these many years; this is indeed a shared accomplishment.

PREFACE

This study seeks to gain an understanding of how academic culture and structure are positioned within the policy process of academic reorganization. The growing practice of academic reorganization at colleges and universities in the United States often involves the dismantling of traditional academic departments, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars within disciplines, and the resultant reduction in faculty serving as department chairs.

The significance of the study is in identifying correspondence between (a) assertions in the literature concerning the power, influence, and traditions of academic culture and structure in higher education, and (b) references to academic culture and structure in the documents describing the policy process of academic reorganization initiatives.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Academic reorganization is an idea taking hold among leaders of colleges and universities in the United States. Framed as a way to increase interdisciplinary collaboration, better serve students, and address fiscal concerns, the merging or elimination of academic departments represents a significant disruption to the established culture of higher education.

As one of the most visible and entrenched elements of organizational culture in higher education, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars and leadership of those communities by faculty is deeply rooted in the history of higher education in the United States. Faculty at Harvard and the University of Virginia grouped themselves into separate departments in the middle 1800s to “improve the organization and management of the academic process as knowledge expanded at an ever accelerating pace” (Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch & Tucker, 1999, p. 3). The leadership of academic departments reflects this history: the chair position “was reserved for the most prestigious scholars within the discipline” and the chair served “in an almost ceremonial manner” (Hecht et al. 1999, p. 22).

Today, the academic department is the “definitive locus of faculty culture” and the “middle-level” in the operational structures of universities (Edwards, 1999, p. 18). But as institutional complexity grows, particularly in public research universities, so too do the responsibilities of departments and department chairs. Expectations for academic departments and department chairs go well beyond the scholarly roles of teaching and research: they now

reflect the major operations of an institution in carrying out its mission including resource allocation, staff supervision, student recruitment and retention, measuring learning outcomes, managing facilities, and fundraising. The department chair is expected to serve as a leader, scholar, manager, and faculty developer (Carroll & Gmelch, 1992).

At a time of unprecedented challenges in higher education, colleges and universities are rethinking long-standing organizational structures and looking for configurations that encourage innovation, collaboration, and cost effectiveness. Having restructured non-academic functions for efficiency and cost savings, colleges and universities are now looking to restructure the organization of faculty in ways distinctly different from the traditional discipline/department structure.

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to identify and describe how academic culture and academic structure are positioned in the context of academic reorganization as described in documents promulgated by institutions pursuing academic reorganization and in documents representing the voices of stakeholders affected by academic reorganization. This study is concerned with academic reorganization initiatives that are framed as transformational, as opposed to reorganizations that are undertaken almost entirely due to fiscal exigency. The rationale for this distinction is that reorganizations undertaken to address major financial shortfalls have different dynamics than mergers and other tactics of reorganizations undertaken for academic transformation.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Higher education institutions in the United States are experiencing unprecedented challenges and opportunities. Their organizational structures are under immense pressure to become more flexible and agile in mounting responses to challenges and seizing opportunities. At the same time, there is a growing sense that the prevailing system of organizing faculty by discipline is obsolete and that it is counterproductive to cross-disciplinary collaboration (Friedman, 2001). In response to internal and external pressures and in an attempt to find ways to make their institutions more flexible, responsive, and efficient, some presidents and chancellors have set agendas that include academic restructuring—the redefining, merging and/or elimination of existing academic departments.

Altering the organization of faculty and the academic structure threatens deeply held tenets of faculty culture. As more academic reorganization initiatives are announced by universities, scholarly inquiry is needed to identify how colleges and universities situate the disruption to academic culture and academic structure within problem identification and policy proposals for academic restructuring.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.3.1 Evolution of the literature search and review

This literature review began with an interest in organizational culture in higher education with particular attention to the evolution of faculty roles in academic administration. I wanted to know

how it came to be that faculty—experts in a given discipline and committed to teaching and research—are also expected, from time to time, to serve as managers, budget-minders, and strategic planners. What is it in the DNA of higher education that created a system in which faculty, often unprepared, move into the unfamiliar territory of administration? Exploration into the organizational culture and history of higher education answered this initial question but led to another: why is the transition from faculty-to-administrator often couched in negative terms, for example, “going to the dark side,” or “going to a different planet”? The literature’s position on these two questions revealed a niche of complexities and intractable issues associated with the role of department chair. For those serving in the role of department chair, stress and frustration run high. For colleges and universities, actions taken by ill-equipped department chairs can have far-reaching, negative consequences.

I then turned the focus of my literature review towards how colleges and universities are addressing the challenges associated with increased administrative burdens upon department chairs. The literature revealed resounding calls for better preparation and training for department chairs but the environment reflects a haphazard assortment of training programs for department chairs. Some colleges and universities have sought to create institutional-based department chair training programs and some for-profit ventures offer department chair “institutes.” But what I found more startling than the paucity of opportunities to develop and prepare department chairs, was the growing trend among colleges and universities in the United States to restructure the organization of faculty by merging or eliminating academic departments—hence, eliminating the role of department chair. This emerging trend led to the development of the third question for the literature review, examining the impact of academic reorganization upon academic departments and department chairs.

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW QUESTIONS

This literature review is designed to answer the following questions:

1. How are the academic and administrative cultures, and the transition of faculty into administration, represented in the literature on organizational culture?
2. How is the culture of academic departments and the roles and responsibilities of department chairs—as leaders of academic departments—represented in the context of contemporary challenges facing higher education?
3. What does the literature reveal about the adoption of policies that radically alter the traditional academic structure and culture and the consequences for academic structure and culture?

1.5 LITERATURE REVIEW CRITERIA

1.5.1 Peer reviewed empirical research and narratives

Priority is placed on the utilization of peer-reviewed articles containing empirical research. However, in the course of conducting the literature search it was discovered that peer-reviewed articles exist in the specified topics that do not contain empirical research; furthermore, peer-reviewed narratives outnumber peer-reviewed articles of empirical research. These peer-reviewed narratives are included in literature review so as to provide additional insight into the topics discussed and to add to the critical examination of the state of research in the field. One

non-peer reviewed conference paper by Carroll and Gmelch (1992) is included because the data appears in subsequent studies that were deemed important to include in the literature review.

1.5.2 Books

Scores of books have been published on organizational culture, higher education administration and leadership, and academic administration. Although books are not typically included in literature reviews, I felt it necessary to include books by Baldrige (1971), Schein (1992, 2010), Baumgartner and Jones (1993), Abbott (2002) and Bergquist and Pawlak (2008). Schein's definition of organizational culture informs many of the articles cited in this literature review and his works have been invaluable in my coming to understand organizational culture and my desire to incorporate organizational culture into my dissertation. Bergquist and Pawlak's book, *Engaging the Six Cultures of the Academy*, prompted my interest in the impact of organizational culture on the management of higher education with particular interest in the faculty-turned-administrator phenomenon. The chapter by Abbot (2002) in *The Future of the City of Intellect: The Changing American University*, was invaluable for the discussion of academic reorganization. Finally, Baldrige's *Power and Conflict in the University* (1971) has had a tremendous impact on my understanding of cultural conflicts within higher education and reinforced my interest in the political processes involved in the leadership of our institutions of higher education.

1.5.3 Sources

The primary sources for the literature contained herein include *Educational Administration Abstracts* accessed via the EBSCO database and the PROQUEST database, both made available by the University of Pittsburgh Library. The professional staff of the University of Pittsburgh library provided guidance on the use of the various databases, in testing search phrases, and in locating articles from external sources. Additionally, references cited by the literature discovered in this search process were also examined for relevant sources.

1.5.4 Time frame

With a few exceptions, peer-reviewed articles for the period 1994 – 2014 are included in the literature review. This time period is selected so as to encompass the range of internal and external pressures on higher education that most directly affect the management and administration of higher education institutions as they exist in the very late stages of the twentieth century and into the early twenty-first century. Exceptions were made to this time frame in the case of sources that were integral to explicating data or illuminating concepts discussed in the literature, reported within the time frame but that originated outside of this time frame.

1.5.5 Keywords and Search Phrases

Organizational culture; corporate culture, corporate climate, organizational behavior, and organizational culture in higher education, colleges, and universities; academic administration;

academic leadership; academic attitudes; leadership in higher education; department chair; department chair training, stress, role, responsibilities; faculty culture; faculty attitudes; faculty autonomy; faculty-administrator conflict; conflict in higher education; academic reorganization, restructuring, realignment.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 ACADEMIC AND ADMINISTRATIVE CULTURES IN HIGHER EDUCATION

2.1.1 Organizational culture

Organizational culture is the expression of values and assumptions by individuals within organizations which shape organizational systems and structures. More than any mission or vision statement or strategic plan, culture can either spur or stymie innovation and improvement. Organizational culture is shaped by the way leaders communicate and reinforce values: what leaders pay attention to, how they react, how they allocate rewards, and how they recruit, select, promote, and excommunicate members of the organization (Schein, 2010). The power of organizational culture is as a driver of behaviors, the force behind the “patterns of shared basic assumptions, held as valid by a group and taught to new members as the *correct way* to perceive, think, and feel” (Schein, 1992; p. 12, emphasis added). Organizational culture influences individuals to choose conformity and compliance by “defining appropriate behavior for various situations” (Ravasi & Schultz, 2006, p. 437). Organizational culture “is assumed to reside in the minds of all the organization’s members, not only in the minds of its managers or chief executives” (Hofstede, 1998, p. 2). The influence of the group is central to an understanding of

organizational culture as the “persistent pattern of shared values, beliefs, and assumptions among individuals within a group” (Lee, 2007, p. 43).

2.1.2 Organizational culture in higher education

Shared values and beliefs drive behaviors in higher education institutions just as they do in other organizations. However, the independence necessitated for an academic career, the department- and discipline-centered structure of colleges and universities, and the intellectual purpose of these institutions, renders a very complex picture of organizational culture in higher education institutions. Organizational culture informs the behaviors of individuals and groups and it attracts those with affinity for particular cultural attributes. The unique culture of colleges and universities “attract antiorganizational types—people who want more freedom and independence than exist in virtually any other type of organization” (Rich, 2006, p. 40). Academic institutions are unlike for-profit organizations in that professors are experts with a strong wish for autonomy and freedom and decision-making processes at universities are often complicated and long due to involvement and different interests of academic and administrative staff (Sporn, 1996). Additionally, higher education’s “roots in society” set it distinctly apart from other institutions:

These educational institutions are crucially different from Universal Motors, Minisoft and their like. To begin with, institutions of higher education have their roots in society in ways those others do not. First, they are brought into existence by means of governmental charters or legislation that grant them certain rights to pursue a set of goals, the achievement of which society deems desirable. Surely such an origin generates the moral obligation that the institution act to satisfy society's interests. Further, society also puts its money where its mouth is by

providing a large proportion of the funds used to operate institutions of higher education (Weingartner, 2000, para. 3).

Exploring organizational culture from the vantage point of subcultures provides insight into variations in culture within organizations. Schein (2010) refers to subcultures as groups within organizations that share assumptions of the total organization, formed around functional units of the organization or similarity of educational backgrounds, or similarity of organizational experience. A common approach in the literature on organizational culture in higher education is to consider faculty and administrators as occupying different subcultures that routinely interact with each other in carrying out the organization's mission (Chamberlain & Tang, 1997; Kuo, 2009; Totten et al. 2003).

2.1.3 Faculty culture

Faculty culture is most often associated with the values of independence, autonomy, and academic freedom. The preparation for an academic career promotes independent work—in laboratories, libraries, study carrels, and desks, while degree programs offer significant amounts of unstructured time while requiring high levels of self-discipline to complete degree and scholarly requirements (Strathe & Wilson, 2006). Faculty culture values the right to be different and values eccentricity, diverse perspectives, autonomy, and prestige based on scholarship (Bergquist & Pawlak, 2008). Independence is valued and is often necessary in the pursuit of tenure, as in securing time away from the classroom and other duties to conduct and publish research.

Closely related to the value of independence is that of autonomy, the ability of faculty to have control over their work and their role and power over the curriculum (Kezar, 2014) and to

follow their own principles, styles, and agenda (Kuo, 2009). Two concepts of autonomy—the autonomous self and relational autonomy—demonstrate that the traditional notion of faculty autonomy is in fact limiting, “an ‘isolated’ autonomy which ‘emphasizes separation, individual autonomy, privacy, fragmentation and self-sufficiency’” (Bennett, 1998, as cited by Martinelli-Fernandez, 2010, p. 119). Autonomy in the academy has a relational quality—the privileges of the professoriate have concomitant obligations:

We are members of a particular community at a specific university and thus are constrained by where we are...which provides limits that free us in a positive and negative sense. This, in turn, delineates what we are required to teach as well as what we are allowed to teach and who we are teaching. (Martinelli-Fernandez, 2010, p. 119).

The necessary autonomy and independence of faculty often hinders their awareness and involvement in institutional issues; faculty are “simultaneously engaged in a multiplicity of activities and are prone for that reason alone to lose sight of the relationship between what they are doing and the institutional goals they are engaged to serve” (Weingartner, 2000, para. 11). Achieving that deep, prolonged and substantive engagement in one’s discipline requires an extraordinary commitment of time as well as the ability to turn away from demands and obligations that detract from scholarly goals. The qualities of independence and autonomy that mark faculty culture are essential to achieving recognition and career advancement.

2.1.4 Administrative culture

The administrative culture focuses on day-to-day operations and long-range planning and in creating the conditions that “give their institutions an ethos that is appropriate to higher

education” (Weingartner, 2000, para. 15). Administrators are perceived as taking the “institutional point of view” and as having an esprit de corps that values a commitment to the “good of the institution (Schrag et al. 2010, p. xv). Administrators reflect, and influence, institutional culture “in the subtle ways in which an institutional tone is set, by what is praised and what is reproved...by what kind of models administrators are for the rest of the institution” (Weingartner, 2000, para.15). The immersion in institutional affairs by administration is most often manifest as a high level of attention to fiscal matters, especially those aspects of the operation that generate or deplete revenue, as they occur across the institution.

The literature on the administrative culture in higher education is deeply entwined with that of higher education leadership. The expansive themes associated with higher education leadership underscore the incredible complexity of and public demands upon institutions of higher education in the United States. The administrative culture rewards decision-making and problem solving that “gives priority to institutional interests” (DeFavero, 2003, pp. 904-905). The literature suggests that administrators are overly attentive to operational and fiscal concerns to the detriment of the academic health and vitality of the institution.

2.1.5 Faculty and administrator interactions and faculty-to-administrator transitions

The contrast between academic and administrative cultures appears stark: faculty culture values (and rewards) independence and disciplinary allegiance while the administrative culture values (and rewards) adopting an institutional view for decision-making and problem-solving. Although the cultural attributes of faculty and administrators differ, at least one study suggests that there is agreement on what makes for an ideal institution: faculty and administrators agree that organizational excellence is achieved when faculty and administrators commit substantial time

and resources to insure open, honest, and public communications (Totten et al. 2003). Faculty and administrators also equally value the commitment to student growth and development; that budget allocations are made on defined priorities; and that decisions by academic units are made on established institutional plans (Totten et al. 2003). The differences between faculty and administrative cultures do not appear, in the study by Totten et al. (2003), to be evident in their respective views about organizational excellence. The literature offers a warning about the bifurcation between academics and administration:

Further separating the business life of the university from its academic life is flawed, and ultimately self-defeating: such a separation insulates those who make business decisions from the constituencies to be served by those decisions while at the same time insulating faculty from the challenges posed by the new political economy [of higher education]. Universities require administrators who effectively balance, unite, and integrate business and academic priorities (Rich, 2006, pp. 40-41).

Separation and distinction between academic and administrative cultures can be overcome through communication and empathy. In a survey of 18 academic staff members and 18 administrators at a large public research university in the United States, Kuo (2009) surmised that relationships between academic staff and administrators suffer because the stance of academic staff is separate and distinct from administration. Interpersonal dynamics are reported as strongly influencing organizational culture in the ways in which each group views the other and how they form perceptions. Administrators stressed the importance of initiating personal dialogue with academic staff to better understand what priorities, goals, or concerns academic staff have, while academic staff noted that that they enjoyed personal interactions and open

dialogue, especially through face-to-face communication. The study concluded that it is equally important for academic staff and administrators to “understand how and why their cultural perspectives are similar, different or divided, and what special contexts, situations or challenges affect their interactions” (Kuo, 2009, p. 49).

The unique characteristics of organizational culture in higher education presents yet another interesting variant for inquiry, the phenomenon of faculty transitioning into administration, as in the case of academic department chairs. The literature on the transition from faculty role to administrator role is dominated by peer-reviewed essays. Written by faculty who have served in administrator positions in higher education, these essays support the position that the transition of faculty to administration is a cultural shift involving changes in relationships with peers, establishing new relationships in the organization, and developing a broader view of institutional challenges (Del Favero, 2003; Foster, 2006; Glick, 2006; Palm, 2006; Plater, 2006; Schrag, 2010; Strathe & Wilson, 2006; Willis, 2010).

First-person accounts of faculty who have transitioned into administration appear to reinforce the claim that faculty and administrators are of two different cultures, inherently and inevitably bound to be in conflict. This impression is rendered through the frequent use of clichés to describe the transition, such as going “to the dark side,” (Glick, 2006; Palm, 2006; Willis, 2011), “going to a new planet,” (Foster, 2006); and “crossing the great divide,” (Land, 2003).

The initial step into administration can be “simple and natural,” and not perceived as a transition at all, as in the experience of Palm (2006) who notes that retaining the security of being able to return to academics and maintaining a high level of research output “fueled my misperception that nothing had changed” (p. 60). The identification of one’s self as a faculty member first, administrator second, is often refuted by those with whom the new academic

administrator hopes to remain connected. “Soon I noticed that people saw me differently. My colleagues did not consider me to be trustworthy, and a casual comment from me took on far more significance than I would intend” (Palm, 2006, p. 60). An appointment as chair is not always met with enthusiasm by the new chair’s constituents—her faculty colleagues—and having come from the faculty is no insurance against conflict with faculty. Perhaps most challenging in terms of professional identity and allegiance occurs when faculty serve as academic administrators on an interim basis with the full expectation of returning to the faculty. Gmelch (2004) noted that some department chairs see themselves as scholars who temporarily accept responsibility for administration and experience difficulty in managing competing interests and needing to “swivel” without appearing “two-faced” (p. 75). There is a sense from the essays that it is not unusual for the new chair to be set upon by faculty colleagues; Willis (2010) writes that “for most of my tenure as chair, one faculty member frequently complained to the dean about my decisions and actions as chair, and made false accusations concerning my integrity and ethics when I was being considered for a second term as chair” (p. 198).

Foster (2006) writes that “for some [faculty], administration violates deeply held values and is discomfoting in such extreme ways that is unlikely to be a satisfying career option” (p. 57). It is envisioned that faculty who most deeply cherish the faculty way of life would be most disappointed with an administrative post: “faculty who become administrators often lose touch with the daily realities of academic life...the demands of their respective work environments and layers of bureaucracy separate top administration from their former faculty colleagues” (Del Favero, 2003, p. 904).

The socialization and professional preparation of faculty provides insight into the philosophical and intellectual changes that accompany moving from the ranks of faculty to

administration. Moving into administration is perceived as a negative, “a reflection of raw ambition or misplaced values” that suggest the move into administration is a compensation for a lack of academic values (Palm, 2006, p. 60). Moving into administration brings about changed relationships with peers, manifested in informal and formal relationships. There is the sense that the new academic administrator is no longer one of them (the faculty), as evidenced by the “discomfort and stress of redefining relationships with their colleagues who may have been close friends or long-term adversaries” (DeZure, Shaw & Rojewski, 2014, p. 8). Relationships change as a function of the new administrator’s role which now includes supervising and evaluating those who were once their peers, the “sudden and rude realization” that interactions with friends and colleagues are no longer the same (Plater, 2006, p. 22). New department chairs are encouraged to find new confidants because sustaining close friendships with faculty is difficult, “since the role of evaluator is one that chairs cannot escape” (Thomas & Schuh, 2004, p. 15-16). First-person accounts remind department chairs that talking about faculty with other faculty is of the utmost impropriety. New academic administrators are reminded that the line separating department chair from colleague is real and perceptible (Plater, 2006, p. 22). A sense of loss comes through, as in the acknowledgement that “you lose your department friends” because there is so much that the new department chair is unable to talk about (Smith, Rollins & L. Smith, 2011, p. 57). Cultural adjustments may be even more pronounced when moving to a different institution, as the new academic administrator may not understand the subtleties of culture and faculty “may react with suspicion” (Palm, 2006, p. 62). Faculty who move into administration confront one of the strongest cultural affectations of faculty—the aversion to being managed and, now, becoming one who manages.

Advancement into administration is a “move from specialist to generalist” that requires some “thoughtful forgetting or setting aside” of perspectives learned in the pursuit of an academic career: the learning of a specialization or discipline and mastering the “techniques of inquiry” and “adhering to them rigorously” (Plater, 2006, p. 19). The move to academic administration should also stimulate shifts in reasoning, a setting aside of the practice of making “normative and moral judgments” as is expected of faculty, in favor of choosing a morally justified course of action,” defined as actions in the best interest of the institution (Schrag, 2010, p. 28). A savvy academic administrator works with what she knows about the faculty culture to be effective as an administrator, chief of which is the recognition that autonomy and questioning is a powerful attribute of faculty culture:

The role of academic leader is to maintain hopefulness about the institution and lead others to believe in a positive future. Graduate students and research faculty members finely hone the ability to question, to doubt, to see fault. This attitude, ranging on cynicism, translates into a typical mode of outlook on the part of faculty members with respect to the institution and its leaders. It is assumed that morale has never been lower, that the once-great institution is headed downward, and that the academic leadership is a group of bumbling or self-serving individuals who are doing the institution no good...this attitude, however, must be abandoned when one becomes an academic administrator...as an administrator, it is important to believe and convey the belief that the institution is getting better...optimism by administrators is essential for success (Palm, 2006, p. 64).

On the practical aspect of moving from faculty to administrator, all cite the enormity of the learning curve: “There is a staggering amount to learn” (Foster, 2006, p. 50). The preparation

for an academic career is often insufficient for helping the new academic administrator deal with “budget administration, financial planning, personnel evaluation, policy enforcement, legal liabilities, program assessment, fundraising, marketing, and space utilization” (Plater, 2006, p. 15). Compounding the difficulty of the transition is the consistent recognition among sources that academic administrators have virtually no preparation for or conceptual understanding of the role (Gmelch, 2004). Academic chairs reported receiving no training or development from their institution in preparation for their new role (Smith & Stewart, 1999). The “traditional” route from faculty to administration is a path wherein preparation is essentially “trial and error” (Strathe, 2006, p. 8). At least one source suggests that the absence of managerial experience among academic administrators is a good thing because they can “temper and balance the bureaucratic tendencies of the institution” (Carroll & Wolverton, 2004, p. 8).

Those who have transitioned from faculty to administration often view their roles as connecting, bridging, or closing the divide between faculty and administration: “Individual administrators should not pass from one side to the other so much as bridge the two” (Foster, 2006, p. 52). The ability to engage in informal “give and take” (Glick, 2006, p. 88) and “strong interpersonal skills” (Land, 2003, p. 16) are essential for bridging the gulf between faculty and other university administrators, as are patience, a good sense of humor, and a stubborn drive to make improvements against resistance (Palm, 2006).

The sacrificing of one’s academic career with a move into administration is justified by the belief that one can “further the important goal of high quality in higher education” (Palm, 2006, p. 65). Academic administrators develop a perspective different than faculty, one that is based on a “larger unit, often reflecting divergent disciplines or specialties...interrelationships between disciplines, academic units, and other administrative units on the campus are seen with

greater understanding” (Strathe & Wilson, 2006, p. 11). Meaning is found in the ability to influence, enhance, and contribute to the mission of the institution, and central to this is the ability to manage relationships:

Inherently, every administrator at all levels is defined by her or his ability to manage relationships. The value in knowing this fact of administration and in understanding the differences that occur at successively higher levels of leadership not only makes for success but also permits you to create and accept identities that can change as the level of position changes or as time in office require...self-awareness about relationship management can be equally as useful in the descent—when ego and self-definition are fragile (Plater, 2006, p. 23).

The essays by faculty who moved into administration demonstrates that walking a mile in someone else’s shoes—in this case, the shoes of an administrator—are valuable for illuminating the demands upon administrators. It is worth noting that there is no administrative correlation to the faculty-to-administrator transition, as administrators who do not hold faculty credentials are ineligible to serve as faculty.

2.2 ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS AND THE DEPARTMENT CHAIR AS ACADEMIC LEADER

2.2.1 Academic department culture and structure

The departmental structure of higher education is uniquely American. Abbott (2002) describes the American disciplinary system as a social structure, one that has endured and is unique in the international landscape of higher education:

The departmental structure within universities appeared only in America, although since midcentury it has gradually spread elsewhere. Academic disciplines in the American sense—groups of professors with exchangeable credentials collected in strong associations—did not really appear outside the United States until well into the postwar period (p. 206-207).

Academic departments have evolved to be the institutional home of disciplinary specializations. Abbott (2002) contends that a “dual institutionalization” contributes to the resilience of the American system of academic disciplines: “the disciplines constitute the macrostructure of the labor market for faculty...and the system constitutes the microstructure of each individual university...this duality means that no university can challenge the disciplinary system as a whole without depriving its Ph.D. graduates of their academic future” (p. 208). This dual institutionalization is an example of the unique elements of organizational culture within higher education, the values of faculty aligned by academic discipline—a tribe, if you will—that exists both independent of and dependent upon the academic/organizational structure of the university at which they teach.

The culture of an academic department is shaped by the values of the academic discipline represented by its members as well as the values and operating structures of the institution in which the department resides—which includes the authority and structure of the department chair role. That academic departments can be said to have their own culture is described as follows:

Since departments are relatively small, make some policies for themselves, and have relatively homogenous memberships due to the similarity of discipline and socialization, they readily lend themselves to developing sets of shared norms, beliefs, and values enacted within the unit. In this sense, an academic department establishes its own culture and becomes the locus for how its members define their roles and identify with their institution and academic discipline (Mills, Bettis, Miller & Nolan, 2005, p. 597).

Disciplines, organized within institutions as academic departments, are regarded as occupying the frontline in the development and determination of what constitutes knowledge and how knowledge is to be organized (Gumport, 2002). As such, the culture of academic departments is influenced by the epistemologies and pedagogies adopted by the discipline:

The culture of academic disciplines “...consists of a ‘knowledge tradition’ that includes categories of thought, a common vocabulary, and related codes of conduct...the culture of the profession influences all disciplines and institutions, providing the foundation for a single ‘community of scholars’ ” (Frost & Jean, 2003, p. 120-1).

Academic departments exist at the intersection of two broader cultures—the institution and the discipline (Lee, 2007). As a business unit within an institution, an academic department

is the first-line administrative unit of a complex organization (Edwards, 1999). Academic departments may function with a high degree of autonomy within a college or university; they “run independently, are allocated their own power and resources, and contain distinct curricula, financial budgets, and administrative leadership” (Lee, 2007, p. 41). Yet, at least one survey found that institutional culture shapes departmental culture more so than disciplinary culture. A survey of 34,847 professors representing 4,202 departments found that the institution had a greater impact on departmental culture than did academic discipline (Lee, 2007). This finding may be illuminated by the stance that although faculty members of an academic department at a specific university have autonomy and strongly identify with the values of their respective disciplines, they are nonetheless “constrained” by the institution’s requirements for what to teach and who to teach (Martinelli-Fernandez, 2010, p. 119).

Academic structure is the representation of the formal organization of knowledge in colleges and universities and where departments and degree programs are the defining features of academic organizations (Gumport, 2002). The concept of academic structure also illuminates the roles and responsibilities of academic departments by defining two distinct elements: (1) bureaucratic, as in the consumption of resources, the managing of personnel, and the occupation of formal space, and (2) programmatic, as expressed by the array of degree programs offered (Gumport, 2002). As part of the bureaucratic structure of colleges and universities, academic departments are the first-line administrative units of a complex organization (Edwards, 1999); they run independently, are allocated their own power and resources, and contain distinct curricula, financial budgets, and administrative leadership (Lee, 2007). The programmatic element of academic structure is represented by the degree programs which serve to “signify

areas of faculty interest and expertise, locate students within the academic organization, and contribute to the external identity of the organization” (Gumport, 2002, p. 386).

Academic departments are often criticized for their perceived lack of innovation, aversion to change, and protracted decision-making processes. As Edwards (1999) reminds us, academic departments were not organized for administrative efficiency but rather for disciplinary representation and scholarly community. The supposed inertia of academic departments serves as cultural preservation. The characteristics of academic structures that give rise to such negative connotations are grounded in “enduring organizational features, such as classical curricula, faculty tenure, and the importance of symbols, rituals, and traditions” of academic ideals; the perceived inertia is “an essential source of cultural stability, continuity in professional identities and knowledge classifications” (Gumport, 2002, p. 382).

The way an institution defines its academic departments may be perceived as bestowing legitimacy and prestige to the department members. The department “gives identity and community to the local representatives of the discipline” and achieving departmental status becomes the “key signifier that one’s discipline is taken “seriously” by the university, and such status typically becomes the central goal of scholars in new or emergent disciplines (Edwards, 1999, p. 18). Additionally, institutional approaches to academic structure are symbols of organizational culture, conveying messages about the institution’s aspirations:

Academic structure itself can have important consequences for the institution’s legitimacy. For example, the full range of knowledge categories in the academic structure can enhance the legitimacy of a campus that strives to be seen as a comprehensive university. Similarly, the establishment of new programs may

further the aspirations of those campuses seeking to emulate the academic offerings of higher status campuses (Clark, 1987, cited by Gumport, 2002).

One of the most compelling (and perhaps least explored) discussions of academic departments as organizational and cultural entities occurs in the literature within the domain of knowledge creation and legitimization. The nature of academic departments across the landscape of higher education is unique in that collectively, academic departments define what constitutes knowledge, and the organization of knowledge—what Gumport (2002) refers to as knowledge categories, become the organizing principles for students' learning, faculty work, and credentialing. This new sociology of knowledge views academic organizations as the primary site for the creation and evolution of knowledge categories and for defining categories of expertise and certifying individuals for participation in the labor market:

As educational institutions in general evolve, they develop categories of knowledge and thereby determine that certain types of knowledge exist and are authoritative. They also define categories of persons privileged to possess the bodies of knowledge and to exercise authority that comes from knowledge. Educational structures, in effect, are a theory of knowledge, in that they help define what currently counts as knowledge (Clark, 1983, p. 26 cited by Gumport, 2002, p. 380-1).

Faculty in specific disciplines, through their association with other faculty and their membership in academic institutions, collectively shape and reflect “what counts” as knowledge, but the structure—academic departments—that support this lofty charge are tasked with overwhelming administrative burdens:

The modern department thus marries two quite distinct and important functions: it serves as the ceremonial signifier and home turf of the disciplinary practitioners on the one hand, and as the front-line operating unit of a complex bureaucratic organization on the other (Edwards, 1999, p. 19).

This bifurcation creates tension, described as “the growing disparity between the institution’s interest in being responsive, focused, innovative, and entrepreneurial and the department’s traditional academic culture” (Edwards, 1999, p. 20). Tensions associated with the widening gap between academic culture and administrative demands are embodied in the challenges faced by those that lead academic departments, the chair.

2.2.2 Department chairs as academic leaders

The department chair role is suffused with responsibilities that reflect the major operations of a university in carrying out its mission: resource allocation, staff supervision, faculty evaluation, student recruitment and retention, student learning outcomes, facilities management, and fundraising. The department chair is the primary torch-holder for the preservation and elevation of his or her academic discipline, although most of the literature on department chairs focuses on the administrative burden and the negative impact on the chair-holder’s scholarship.

Among the challenges encountered in the literature that seeks to define the role of department chair is the wide variation in mission, size, and affiliation among colleges and universities across the United States and the respective administrative systems and structures. There is also variance in the way department chairs are selected: some are elected by faculty peers and some are appointed by the dean; some come from inside the institution and some from outside. Variations in the size and disciplinary composition of a department and terms of service

could likely be expected to impact the scope of the department chair's role, as well as personal traits and professional experience of the department chair. Nevertheless, the job of department chair is daunting:

Department chairs organize hiring and do personnel administration, not just of disciplinary colleagues but also of clerical and technical staff and others. They conduct annual performance reviews, confer raises, and adjudicate staff disputes. They oversee administering the curriculum, assigning classrooms, advising students, recording grades, maintaining majors' files, gaining approvals for course changes, and assessing student learning. They supervise the purchase of supplies, computers, and other technical equipment, and plan for facilities renovation and construction. They must ensure that their faculty and staff operate within the complicated and changing rules derived from, among other sources, federal and state statutes on race, gender, and age discrimination, treatment of people with disabilities, drug-free workplaces, and multiple other employment rights. And they must manage compliance with complicated, quasi-legal university rules on hiring, tenure, program review, academic rights, benefits policies, and so on (Edwards, 1999, p. 18).

2.2.3 Roles, duties and constituent expectations

In recognition of the shortcomings of specific and fragmented listings of chair duties that could be misleading, Carroll and Gmelch (1992) undertook a study of 539 department chairs among 100 Carnegie Council Research I and II, and Doctorate Granting I and II institutions to arrive at a taxonomy of chair roles: leader, faculty developer, scholar, and manager. The data reported in

the 1992 paper formed the basis for a subsequent article by Carroll and Gmelch (1994). A number of ensuing researchers use the Carroll and Gmelch data (1992, 1994) including several in this literature review (Aggarwal, Rochford, & Vaidyanathan, 2009; Aziz, Mullins, Balzer, Grauer, Burnfield, Lodato, & Cohen-Powless, 2007; Bozeman, Fay, & Gaughan, 2012; Murry & Stauffacher, 2001).

A more recent study conducted at a private business university in the northeast area of the United States sought to delineate department chair categories and duties. Berdrow's (2010) action research described a process initiated by the administration to develop a better understanding of the chair's role and how to be effective in that role. The study concluded that department chair duties across academic disciplines fall into six different categories: climate enhancement, catalyst/innovation, student development, operations/administration, faculty development, and communication/representation (Berdrow, 2010).

While the preceding studies offer two views on department chair roles, other studies have sought to enhance the understanding of the role of department chair by exploring the perceived importance of department chair duties (Aggarwal et al. 2009; Carroll & Gmelch, 1994; Murry & Stauffacher, 2011). Duties associated with faculty development (defined as recruiting and retaining faculty, encouraging faculty research and publication, evaluating and mentoring faculty, maintaining a conducive work environment) were deemed highly important (Carroll & Gmelch, 1994) leading to the conclusion that department chairs value duties that are of immediate benefit to the faculty over those that may benefit the university as a whole.

Studies measuring the effectiveness of department chairs as perceived by the chair's constituents reveal some mismatch in expectations. A survey of deans, chairs, and faculty in research universities to determine what each constituent group perceived as important skills and

behaviors lead to department chair effectiveness in research universities, found that the perceived effectiveness of department chairs by the constituent groups (deans and faculty) is highest for department chairs who effectively communicate department needs to the dean, encourage open communication between and among faculty and staff, promotes trust and cooperation among department members, and exhibit integrity and ethical behavior in all dealings (Murry & Stauffacher, 2001). Deans highly valued a chair's ability to ensure that administrative procedures are properly carried out, while faculty highly valued a chair's equitability in decision-making, especially in relation to budgets (Murry & Stauffacher, 2001, pp. 72-73).

2.2.4 Training needs

Data on the role of department chair also arises from studies examining training needs. Among the essays by current and former academic administrators, frequent reference is made to the general lack of preparation provided to them before or after taking on the department chair role. A case study involving Bowling Green State University in Ohio used structured interviews and surveys of department chairs to identify the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) required for success as a department chair (Aziz et al. 2005). The findings were grouped into ten KSA categories and rank ordered according to importance and training necessity including:

- Professional development of chair/director;
- professional development within the department/program;
- issues related to faculty;
- issues related to intradepartmental communication;
- issues related to external communication;
- issues related to budgeting and resources;

- issues related to department/program administration;
- knowledge of legal issues;
- issues related to students;
- and issues related to office management (Aziz et al. 2007).

The ten KSAs identified by Aziz et al. (2007) appear to map well to the categories proposed by Carroll and Gmelch (1992) and Berdrow (2010), perhaps creating a triangulation of sorts of department chair roles. The study achieves its purpose in demonstrating the systematic analysis of training needs which could lead to training program design and implementation.

2.2.5 Leadership style

Having identified a multitude of duties and roles expected by department chairs, the scope of knowledge, skills, and abilities to perform said duties, and having established that a chair's constituents will have definitive ideas as to what is most important, a fourth dimension is introduced in the literature on department chairs: the department chair as leader. Six critical components of leadership in higher education were identified in the course of developing a training program for department chairs:

- understanding self;
- understanding transformational leadership;
- establishing and maintaining relationships;
- leading teams;
- leading strategic planning and change; and
- connecting through community (Filan & Seagren, 2003).

Although not framed within a theory of organizational culture, the components of leadership reference concepts that relate well to organizational culture: in defining the component of *understanding self*, the authors note that “individuals are more effective and organizations are more empowered when they are guided and governed by proven principles. These principles surface in the form of *values, ideas, norms and teachings* that uplift, enoble, fulfill, empower, and inspire people” (Covey, 1992, cited by Filan & Seagren, 2003, p. 24, emphasis added). Similarly, in the component, *establishing and maintaining relationships*, the authors posit that the ability to appreciate a “kaleidoscope of views, behaviors, work, and learning styles is central to communication in postsecondary organizations” (Filan & Seagren, 2003, p. 26). Finally, the component, *connecting through community*, emphasizes the notion of bridging teams to the larger organizational culture.

Transformational leadership, identified by Filan and Seagren (2003) is also discussed at length by Brown and Moshavi (2002) who place it in the context of balancing the demands between administrative control and faculty autonomy. Transformational leadership emphasizes inspirational aspects of the relationship between leaders and followers, whereas transaction leadership emphasizes the link between goals and reward, also referred to as the contingent reward method of leadership (Brown & Moshavi, 2002). A survey of more than 400 faculty members in 70 different academic departments from land-grant universities indicated that “transformational leadership behaviors are positively associated with faculty satisfaction with department chair supervision, perceptions of organizational effectiveness, and willingness to expend extra effort” (Brown & Moshavi, 2002, np). The implication for practice is that “universities should consider selecting department chairs on the basis of their transformational leadership behaviors or provide some form of transformational leadership training, because a

lack of such behaviors may have negative consequences for the overall organization” (Brown & Moshavi, 2002, np).

2.2.6 The ideal leader

The role of department chair is in one sense a study in mismatched expectations, as the way the role is understood, articulated, and measured varies between those in the role, those to whom the chair reports (dean), and those who are served by the chair (departmental faculty and staff). Smothers, Absher and White (2012) surveyed 273 faculty members (all levels, tenured and untenured) and 31 department leaders (deans and department heads) at business schools located in private, non-Ivy League colleges and universities to arrive at a conceptualization of the ideal leader. The findings indicate that the ability to form positive interpersonal and group relationships ranks high and that “there is a strong desire for a supportive and collegial work environment in which equitable justice is administered by the department leader” (Smothers et al. 2012, p. 414). Although the researchers did not position this study in the theoretical framework of organizational culture, the findings could support the claim that values—in this case, “ideals,” exert strong influence on the expectations for department chair performance and conduct.

2.2.7 The wily leader

Homer and Hubbell (1997) hold the perspective that department chairs suffer from a “power deficit” which necessitates strategies to cope with the numerous and often contradictory roles that department chairs must invariably assume. Among the roles, the allocation of resources is

one that consumes a great deal of time and psychic energy (Homer & Hubbell, 1997). Drawing upon the literature, personal experience, and interviews with 23 current and former department chairs, the authors find that department chairs adopt several strategies in allocating resources. One strategy for maintaining harmony is in direct contrast to other study findings that place an importance by both faculty and administrators in open, honest communications. Homer and Hubbell (1997) report that some department chairs admit to being secretive about available resources and their distribution: chairs who keep the level of resources secret have more discretion to negotiate and are more likely to plead scarcity when working individual deals with department members. The authors consider this a survival strategy for when the chair returns to the faculty: “the department chair who tells faculty what funds are available for travel, equipment, and salary becomes more vulnerable to the competing demands of faculty...Since most chairs we interviewed chose not to pursue an administrative career, most of them are statesmen who rule and eventually return to the ranks of the ruled” (Homer & Hubbell, 1997, para. 40).

2.2.8 The not-so-ideal leader

For those who prefer the sarcastic approach to academic administration, Hall (2001) offers an opinion of what *not* to do as department chair. Based on personal experience and observation, Hall (2001) offers an inventory of “monologic attitudes and behaviors that will undermine the possibility of a healthy community,” including: express scorn for administrators as sellouts or failures; act as if your department is the center of the universe; consider the needs of other units on campus as inconsequential or laughable; dispense resources as a reward for loyalty; ignore problems that bore or confound you; weed out the weak by pitting colleague against colleague;

and yell at staff, that is what they are there for (Hall, 2001, pp. 539-545). While Hall's mockery could be criticized for making light of the seriousness of chairing a department, his observation that departments can go from "functionality to dysfunctionality seemingly overnight" is not to be casually disregarded (Hall, 2001, p. 546). This must have been the feeling among faculty members at the Medical College of Georgia Department of Psychiatry and Health Behavior who experienced massive organizational consequences upon the arrest and conviction of the department chair and senior faculty member on scheming to defraud the State of Georgia. "At that point in time, the department (and unfairly, by association, its faculty and staff) was regarded as an institutional embarrassment and went into a downward spiral in performance...department members felt humiliated and bewildered by these events" (Buckley & Grigsby, 2011, pp. 144-145). What followed was a decade-long process of rebuilding the department amid leadership changes and external factors that wrought additional financial hardships, which will not be discussed here. The case is included in the literature review as an example of the damage done to a department and an institution (and, not inconsequentially, patients) as a result of a criminal breach of ethical and legal obligations by a department chair and faculty accomplice. That department chairs have significant ethical, legal, and fiduciary obligations—and the potential to do major damage—to their institution, is generally overlooked in the literature.

2.2.9 Institutional concerns

While conflict and stress is a part of almost any human condition, it emerges as particularly problematic for department chairs and, by association, for the institution as a whole. Gmelch (1995) identifies three themes of department chair conflict—institutional, interpersonal, and

positional—which work well for understanding the realms of conflict and possible resolutions. Institutional conflict is inherent to the structure of higher education due to its “many levels, rules and regulations, specialized disciplines, segmented rewards, autonomy, and high interdependence” (Gmelch, 1995, p. 36). Positional conflict arises among department chairs in the course of “balancing personal and professional lives and the conflict between the chair’s academic and administrative roles” (Gmelch, 1995, p. 39). As discussed in the context of organizational culture, department chairs “seem to be trapped between the pressures and demands of performing not only as administrators but also as productive faculty members,” and the effort to bridge the administrative and academic realms is compromised by ambiguity of two different spheres of higher education which are organized and operated differently (Gmelch, 1995, p. 40).

Department chairs also experience stress arising from unmet personal and professional expectations. In a survey of 105 chairs of marketing departments among schools accredited by the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Businesses, chairs report that demands on time are the greatest impediment to doing research and remaining current in the academic field (Aggarwal et al. 2009). Symptoms of stress are exacerbated by administrative responsibilities and the perception by chairs that they receive inadequate salary and insufficient recognition for their work as chair (Aggarwal et al. 2009). The effects of unresolved stress, or in a department chair’s inability to cope, may well result in burnout, “a syndrome characterized by emotional exhaustion, depersonalization in relationships with coworkers, a sense of inadequacy or reduced personal accomplishments” (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996, cited by Cruz, Pole & Thomas, 2007, p. 2350). Academic chair burnout is costly to institutions and is associated with increased turnover and decreased performance. There is also a correlation between those experiencing

burnout and the development of substance abuse problems (Cruz et al. 2007, p. 2353). While the literature suggests that stress is a significant issue for department chairs, it is interwoven with the challenges of serving as a department chair, a role that is often described as a paradox:

Department chairs are leaders, yet are seldom given the scepter of undisputed authority. Department chairs are first among equals, but any strong coalition of those equals can severely restrict the chairs' ability to lead. Deans and vice presidents look to chairs as those primarily responsible for shaping the department's future, yet faculty members regard themselves as the primary agents of change in department policies and procedures. Department chairs are managers and faculty colleagues, advisors and advisees, soldiers and captains, drudges and bosses (Hecht et al., 1999, p. 22).

The consequences of stress weigh heavily on the department chair, as they do for the institution. Difficulties in recruiting and retaining successful department chairs are said to be at the heart of a leadership crisis in higher education. Conflict and stress are two unpleasant aspects of the role; disillusionment, lack of autonomy, limited ability to effect change, and a lack of resources add to the dissatisfaction experienced by department chairs (Keith & Buckley, 2011). Interest in chairing a department is tempered by the realization that "conditions for chairing a department remain an unmanageable and unproductive option for faculty" (Gmelch, 1995, p. 42). Many who take on the role report having done so because they were drafted by the dean or their colleagues (Aggarwal, et al. 2009).

In response to an anticipated shortage of academic administrators, DeZure et al. (2014) interviewed 19 department chairs and 16 faculty at a large public land-grant research university to identify factors that support and impede the development of academic leaders (it should be

noted that the 16 faculty included in the study were selected because they were identified by deans as having expressed interest in academic leadership). The results are reported in narrative form. Similar to the results reported by Aggarwal et al. (2009), respondents in the interviews conducted by DeZure et al. (2014) report taking on the department chair role as a form of service to their department, because it was their turn, or because there was no one else who could or would do it. Satisfaction in the role is reported as the ability to make a difference, working with different types of people, and creating collaborative relationships (DeZure et al. 2014). Dissatisfying aspects of the chair role include the impact on research, especially for faculty in science, technology, engineering, and math disciplines, who perceive the move into administration as an “exit from which there was no return to active research” (DeZure et al. 2014, p. 7-8).

A survey of faculty in the field of communications revealed that respondents were fairly evenly divided between those who would accept a suitable administrative position if offered and those who would not accept an administrative job (DeFleur et al. 2010). Results are drawn from 890 survey respondents, all of whom were members of the Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication serving in institutions in the United States. Those who are likely to accept an administrative position most frequently cited the opportunity to develop or direct a program or department as influencing their decision. Creativity and altruism were strong factors in shaping respondents’ willingness to serve, as was the opportunity to parlay a position at an institution where they would rather work (DeFleur et al. 2010). Those who would not accept an administrative position attribute their decision to the “forbidding combination of factors” involved in dealing with faculty “who want to be left alone and tend to be distrustful,” and dealing with “upper administration supervisors who are equally unsympathetic and looking

for rigorous management and fundraising skills” (DeFleur, et al. 2010). Hostility and adversarial relationships between faculty and administrators were perceived by almost half of the respondents, while the open-ended responses reinforced the cliché of going to the dark side and the belief among faculty that administrators are unresponsive to faculty concerns, too willing to accommodate students, and too focused on financial aspects (DeFleur et al, 2010). Although issues related to demands on time were the top four responses on the survey, the open-ended responses strongly suggest that negative attitudes about administrators—and administration—create significant barriers to serving as department chair.

The literature on academic leadership chairs makes the following suggestions to alleviate the pressures, stresses and strains on those in and who aspire to the role: invest in department chair preparation and training programs, (Aziz et al. 2005; Berdrow, 2010; Filan & Seagren, 2003; Seagren, Cresswell, & Wheeler, 1993; Brown & Moshavi, 2002); tap faculty for short-term projects to assist the chair (DeZure et al. 2014; Hoppe, 2003), and delegate some projects to non-faculty (Hancock, 2007); these suggestions are neither new or ground-breaking.

2.3 ACADEMIC REORGANIZATION: STRUCTURAL AND CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

2.3.1 Origins of concept and practice in the private sector

Reorganization¹ is a concept and practice that originated in the private sector and which is now being adopted by institutions of higher education. Reorganizing is an institutional response to changing conditions in the environment in which the institution operates. Corporate reorganization came to prominence in the 1980s and 1990s, the era of hostile takeovers and leveraged buyouts (Horn & Jerome, 1996). Reorganization is commonly characterized as a way to effectively and efficiently reorganize or change the components of corporate work utilizing tactics such as specializing, cultivating core competencies, and contracting or outsourcing functions previously performed within the organization (Hirsch & De Soucey, 2006, p. 183). The framing of reorganization typically emphasizes it as a “defensive organizational move against external and contextual pressures” and a “positive force for achieving efficiency in a cutthroat marketplace;” reorganizing is also a way to “talk legitimately about squeezing efficiency out of the same set of assets within organizational limits” (Hirsch & De Soucey, 2006, p. 172, 178). The consequences of reorganization often include the dismissal of existing management, forced wage and benefit concessions from workers, reductions in staff, and renegotiated contracts with long-time suppliers and salespersons (Horn & Jerome, 1996). The framing of reorganizing in

¹ Within the literature, the terms *restructuring* and *reorganization* are used to refer to a broad range of structural changes, as discussed this chapter. For ease of reading, I will use the term *reorganization* to refer to the range of structural and operational actions taken by institutions to adapt to internal and external pressures.

positive terms “masks changes that may benefit owners while causing (at least) short-term harm to workers and society more broadly” (Hirsch & De Soucey, 2006, p. 181). Similarly, Horn & Jerome (1996) note that most reorganizing efforts result in a redistribution of income and wealth from labor and other stakeholders to the corporate stockholders (p. 34); they frame corporate reorganizing as a breach of trust between labor and management which results in lower morale, less trust between a disenfranchised work force and the new efficiency-oriented management, and, ultimately, less growth in productivity (p. 35).

2.3.2 The scholarship of organizational change

Reorganization represents a substantial change in an organization. Understanding and managing organizational change is addressed in the literature on organizational development, a field closely linked with organizational culture. The field of organizational development seeks to study planned change processes, to assess the effects of efforts to promote organizational change, and to evolve better theories of change processes (Alderfer, 1977). Boyer and Crockett (1973) define organizational development as a “planned change strategy emphasizing more effective utilization of the human resources of the organization” (p. 340). The field of organizational development provides a framework for the process of organizational change in three stages:

In the first stage, *unfreezing*, the goal is to create a motivation or a readiness for change...this translates to surfacing dissatisfaction with the current state and identifying a better or more desirable alternative...The second stage, *movement*, consists of making changes and engaging in new behaviors to help make the desired future state a reality...The third stage, *refreezing*, requires establishing a system or process that will solidify (or refreeze) the new desired state (Waclawski & Allan, 2002, p. 11).

The field of organizational development provides researchers with ways to think about and evaluate institutional change. Waclawski and Allan (2002) categorize organizational development as action research, necessitating the systematic gathering and analysis of data on the problem or situation at hand and taking action based on the analysis of the data.

2.3.3 Reorganizing in higher education

Within higher education, the concept and practice of reorganizing reflects its corporate roots as a response to changing environments and external pressures. As Rich (2006) points out, an institution's response to external pressures and expectations has a direct impact on its academic assets—its “communities of scholars”—for “how those communities are constituted, how they operate, and what they produce define the character and greatly determine the success of universities” (p. 43). The kinds of external pressures associated with academic reorganizing include changing societal needs such as increasing demands for access, changes in student demographics, and the “growing public expectation that universities should respond swiftly to changing demands, and the much more competitive higher education marketplace that assigns benefits and penalties to institutions that do and do not respond effectively” (Rich, 2006). Academic reorganizing initiatives are usually undertaken to achieve one or a combination of the following outcomes: to increase interdisciplinary research and teaching, to enhance the student learning experience, and/or to create financial efficiencies (Capaldi, 2009; Langham & Fifolt, 2014; Birx, Anderson-Fletcher & Whitney, 2013; Friedman, 2001).

Academic reorganizing affects the culture and structure of the organization. As with the corporate model of reorganizing, the consequences of reorganizing in higher education often include shuttering or consolidating departments and eliminating faculty and staff positions. Horn

& Jerome (1996) note that while universities cannot engage in leveraged buyouts like the private sector, their behaviors show similarities to the corporate world, such as announcing plans to increase efficiency, visible changes in mid-level administration and organizational structure, clarification of the institution's mission, and highly visible changes in the content of the curriculum (p. 35). The language of reorganizing in higher education mirrors that of corporate American in the 1980s and 1990s. Common themes such as being in a battle for survival position reorganizing as salvation; the motivation for reorganizing in the private sector is mirrored in the arguments of those who advocate for reorganizing in higher education institutions:

When times are good, there is little urgency to evaluate fundamental assumptions, as investments can be made in new projects and structures while the old continue...the current economic crisis and associated budget woes in universities requires us to be open to more radical and rapid change than we are used to...*the discipline-based mode of organization is no longer the optimal way to support the work of the contemporary faculty or accomplish the aims of graduate education, never mind to solve the problems facing the planet*" (Capaldi, 2009, paras. 1, 3, emphasis added).

Statements, like the one cited above, appear to suggest that the corporate model of reorganizing has direct applicability to higher education. But fundamental differences between the private sector and higher education suggest that corporate practices do not (and perhaps, should not) carry over to higher education. In a discussion of the applicability of concepts of organizational development to higher education, Boyer and Crockett (1973) claim that organizational development for higher education will not parallel the experiences in industry; their claim is based on the recognition that

Organizational development has been successful in social systems, primarily industrial, which are self-contained, large, rich, and where the product is easily identifiable and measurable. Universities, on the other hand, have more diverse goal structures, a much more pluralistic set of sub-systems, difficulty in measuring the quality of their products, and are greatly influenced by...and highly dependent upon their external environment (e.g., state legislatures, federal agencies, foundations, parents, alumni, community groups) for their survival (p. 342-3).

Further evidence of the differences between corporate and academic structures is revealed in the kinds of challenges encountered in academic reorganizing. According to Miller et al. (2005), academic reorganizing is most often inhibited by “epistemological sovereignty, entrenched financial and administrative flows, and limited access to high profile journals” (p. 46).

2.3.4 Reorganizing for interdisciplinarity and the threat to academic culture, structure

The most direct threat to academic culture and structure brought about by reorganizing appears to be the quest to enhance interdisciplinary research. The goal of interdisciplinary research is to facilitate collaboration among faculty from different disciplines for the purpose of creating and extending knowledge. Enhancing interdisciplinary research and collaboration is valued for its perceived ability to expand the variety of scientific knowledge in ways that research conducted by a single discipline or dominated by a single epistemological perspective cannot achieve (Miller et al. 2005, p. 45), while Birx et al. (2013) claim that “most of the challenges of the 21st century are interdisciplinary in nature, and transformational discoveries often occur at the

interface of disciplines where different viewpoints yield unique insights” (“Lessons Learned,” para. 1). The potential for external funding of interdisciplinary and collaborative projects heightens institutional interest in academic reorganization: interdisciplinarity “has become the model of scholarly inquiry generally espoused by many who seek and receive federal research funding” (Glied, Bakken, Formicola, Gebbie & Larson, 2007, p. 28).

Reorganizing for interdisciplinary research often entails dismantling the current academic structure of aligning faculty by discipline. Breaking the academic structure enables an institution to overcome the shortcomings of the structure of departments which, because of “turf issues,” often precludes the creation of new majors as well as scientific breakthroughs (Friedman, 2001, para. 14). Traditional academic structure is to be blamed for rendering colleges and universities “ill equipped to address a multitude of issues that cut across multiple academic divides” (CoFIR et al. 2005, cited by Miller et al. 2008).

But the quest for interdisciplinarity is not a new one. Abbot (2002) notes that the Social Science Research Council and the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation “were already focused on the problem of eliminating barriers between the social sciences by the mid-1920s” (p. 213). The adage, all that is old is new again, seems to hold true for interdisciplinarity:

Ten years ago [1947] interdisciplinary research was very much in vogue, but now its value is often questioned, partly because it has proved difficult to coordinate interdisciplinary group projects, partly too because such projects have not always produced the spectacular integration of results that was expected (Bott, 1957, cited by Abbott, 2002, p. 215).

Institutional strategic planning processes are often the genesis for pursuing reorganizing agendas rich with interdisciplinary goals, but achieving research competitiveness and excellence

goes beyond the rhetoric of vision statements. Abbott (2002) contends that “everybody always thinks it [interdisciplinarity] is a great thing, but nobody has figured out a way to make it work as a formalized, permanent structure” (p. 215). Cultural conflict figures prominently in Feller’s (2002) review of strategies employed by research-intensive universities in the pursuit of interdisciplinarity for the purpose of maintaining or improving ranking, reputation, and resources:

The totality [of tensions that arise in implementing interdisciplinary strategies] is best captured...by the concept of organizational cultures, particularly the concept of competing organizational values...root issues on several campuses affecting implementation are competing values about faculty autonomy, the role of plural centers of decision-making, and the locus of decision-making and priority-setting as between central administration and colleges (Feller, 2002, p. 113).

Feller (2002), in discussing implementation issues related to interdisciplinarity, notes that “interdisciplinary programs are orphans within the fiscal bureaucracy,” a reference to the barrier created by institutional fiscal structures. Other institutional structures and procedures that impede implementation of interdisciplinary programs include compatibility with college/department strategic plans; promotion and tenure criteria; reporting relationships; space; honoring award agreements; and restrictions on faculty autonomy (Feller, 2002).

Interdisciplinary programs are not immune to the practical considerations involved in operating within the complex environments of colleges and universities: Miller et al. (2008) note that the drawbacks of interdisciplinary research includes the lack of clear direction and methodology, lack of temporal and financial resources, institutional inertia, and barriers to publishing.

Epistemological differences among academic disciplines represent another facet in the challenge to implement interdisciplinary research and collaboration. Frost & Jean (2003) discussed tensions—or “cultural fault lines”—that emerged in the pursuit of an interdisciplinary research agenda:

One tension concerns the realist or empirical approach characteristic of the natural and some social sciences and the relativist or social-construction approach found in some humanities and social sciences. The other tension involves the “practical” or applied nature of professional school scholarship and the theoretical or “pure” nature of scholarship often found in the arts and sciences (Frost & Jean, 2003, p. 145).

Further discussion of epistemological differences reveals that some faculty do not do well in interdisciplinary environments, and those that do enter into interdisciplinary programs must be willing to learn the new language and constructs of other disciplines (Glier et al. 2007). Disciplinary differences are further illuminated as follows:

Clusters of disciplines exemplify the range of differences within these modes [theories, methods, and styles of discourse]...the pure sciences treat knowledge as quantitative and cumulative, the humanities and soft social sciences as reiterative and pluralist, the hard social sciences as functional and utilitarian, and the applied or technical disciplines as purposive and pragmatic...disciplines that provide professional training in theology, business or law...combine academic and practical missions not found in the traditional arts and sciences (Frost & Jean, 2003, p. 122).

Institutional strategies related to interdisciplinary research and collaboration will face a multitude of hurdles. Among them, changing culture is viewed as the most difficult. Academic culture is remarkably persistent and resistant to change (Feldman & Desrochers, 2004). According to Birx et al. (2013), one of the most significant challenges associated with interdisciplinarity is the traditional infrastructure of colleges and departments within a large university; those most resistant to change are sometimes the ones most vested and successful in the current culture. Reorganizing initiatives within higher education run the risk of further degrading the relationship between administrative and academic cultures. Horn & Jerome (1996) warn that

At a time when implicit contracts are being challenged and breached, increased attention must be paid to an explicit reaffirmation of workplace conditions. If such a process is not followed, faculty likely will react to changes in policies by labeling the administration's style as autocratic or dictatorial and possibly seek relief from alleged violations of accustomed policies. In the expectation that more implicit conditions will be violated, the faculty would be expected to feel increasingly disenfranchised and to reassert its demands for additional control over the curriculum and the classroom, and subsequently demand more input into...performance standards, resource allocation, and other areas" (p. 36).

A philosophical question underscores the concerns over structural and cultural challenges of academic reorganization for interdisciplinarity: Gumpert (2000) warns of the possible consequences of reorganizing including a move away from the dominant legitimating idea of public higher education as a social institution, to higher education as an industry. Reorganizing initiatives and the reshaping of academic offerings fail to address the critical issue

of institutional commitment to various knowledge areas; equally worrisome is the increasing reliance upon the “production metaphor” in discussions of higher education:

Simply stated, from the perspective of higher education as an industry, public colleges and universities are seen increasingly as a sector of the economy; as with firms or businesses, the root metaphor is a corporate model of production—to produce and sell goods and services, train some of the workforce, advance economic development, and perform research...In contrast, from the perspective of higher education as a social institution, public colleges and universities by definition must preserve a broader range of social functions that include such essential educational legacies as the cultivation of citizenship, the preservation of cultural heritage(s), and the formation of individual character and habits of the mind (Gumport, 2000, p. 70-1).

Gumport (2001) notes the absence of faculty expertise in discussions by colleges and universities about managing external pressures and warns that deliberations on reorganizing may jeopardize higher education’s ability to serve the “long-term public interest” and to preserve institutional character “as places of inquiry, teaching, and learning, as well as places of personal development and socialization for citizenship” (p. 249).

2.3.5 Evaluating reorganizing in higher education

Very little empirical data exists to evaluate the consequences of reorganizing in higher education. A thorough review of the literature with assistance from the professional librarians at the University of Pittsburgh Library System uncovered only one relevant empirical study assessing reorganizing in higher education. A study conducted by Zajac and Kraatz (1993) examined the

ways reorganizing has been used as an adaptive response to changing environmental and/or organizational conditions, the predictors of the response, and the success of the response in terms of subsequent organizational performance. Data was collected from 631 liberal arts colleges in the United States for the period 1972-86 and analyzed to identify modes of reorganizing and the related core institutional changes undertaken by the institutions to meet changing economic conditions. Zajac and Kraatz (1993) found that financial stress is a strong predictor of reorganizing and that reorganizing is a strong predictor of survival: none of the schools that had closed had also undergone reorganizing for any of the three modes in the three years preceding closure. The results suggest that a significant number of schools in the study engaged in each of the modes of reorganizing as evidenced by a dramatic increase in the cumulative percentage of organizations undergoing various modes of reorganizing over time.

Table 1 Modes of reorganizing and associated core institutional change

<i>Mode of Reorganizing</i>	<i>Core Change</i>
Offering new and different product to the traditional customer	Addition of any business program for the first time
Offering new product to a new customer	Addition of any graduate program for the first time
Offering same product to a new customer	Move from a single-sex to coeducational institution

The findings are consistent with a view that reorganizing represents an organization's attempt to adapt to changes in its environment. Zajac and Kraatz (1993) concluded that "organizations in the study behaved in an intendedly rational manner, adapting (usually with success) to forces in the technical environment" (p. 100). The study seems to suggest that academic reorganizing is effective in achieving positive financial outcomes, however, the

“modes of reorganizing” analyzed in this study are strategies of adding, not deleting: the closure or merger of academic departments was not included among the modes of reorganizing.

No conclusions can be drawn from the literature on academic reorganizing, when “academic reorganizing” means merging or eliminating departments. However, the literature does suggest that academic reorganizing is effective in one area: academic reorganization is effective in signaling institutional intention, *if not the actual ability*, to reconcile competing expectations from the external environment (Gumport, 2002, emphasis added).

2.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for this qualitative research study is the multiple stream model of policymaking which likens problems, policies, and politics to streams flowing around and through the policy making process (Kingdon, 2003). “Policy windows” represent opportunities to raise awareness of a particular problem or push a policy proposal, opportunities that exist for short periods of time. These windows of opportunity arise when the separate streams—problems, policies, and politics—come together (Kingdon, 2003, p. 166).

The multiple streams model was chosen for its applicability to the political environment of higher education and for its constructivist epistemology. However, it is worth noting that other policy and decision making theories were reviewed and considered during the course of this literature review, beginning with an initial interest in theories of university governance, decision-making, and the policy process. A brief review follows to demonstrate the deliberative selection of the policy stream model for this study.

Baldrige (1980), in a discussion of theories frequently used in the study of universities, noted that Max Weber's bureaucratic model does not adequately account for the unique nature of universities as organizations. An alternative proposed by Baldrige (1980) is the political model which encompasses five "points of analysis" that occur within the stages of policy formation:

- *social structure*, conditions influencing the formation of divergent values and interest groups;
- *interest articulation*, how the interest groups bring pressure to bear;
- *legislative transformation*, how multiple pressures are translated into official policy;
- *policy*, the official commitment to certain goals and values; and
- the execution of policy (pp. 21-24).

The political model suggests a sequential nature to policy formation and implementation, a notion disavowed by other theorists including Baumgartner and Jones (2012) whose punctuated equilibrium theory posits that there are long periods of stability disrupted by short but intense periods of instability. Punctuated equilibrium theory "focuses on the mechanisms that lead to policy change," and gives special attention to the "limited attention spans" of decision-makers (Baumgartner & Jones, 2012, p. 3, emphasis added). The notion of policy as disruptive force could have been applied to the analysis of academic culture and the agenda-setting of academic reorganization, however, the punctuated equilibrium theory is more closely associated with analyses of the American political system and its division and separation of powers.

Turning to models that illuminate decision making, I encountered the poliheuristic theory of decision making which contends that decision making by political leaders is a rational process, occurring in two stages: screening out options based on political feasibility, and weighing costs and benefits (Mintz, 2004). Keller and Yang (2008) acknowledge that the

poliheuristic model doesn't account for variations such as leaders' tolerance for risking displeasure of key constituencies or how leaders' "perceptions, personalities, or decision context" influence the screening process (p. 688). Within the literature, poliheuristic theory is most often applied to studies of foreign policy and how foreign leaders make decisions on issues such as war termination, coalition formation, tests of nuclear weapons, and military uprisings (Mintz, 2004). While the political nature of university governance is well established in the literature, the emphasis on the elimination of alternatives in the first stage of the decision process—the "core of poliheuristic theory" (Mintz, 2004, p. 8) would be a limiting factor in the analysis of the policy making process of academic reorganizing in the context of academic culture. Thus, the selection of the multiple stream model (Kingdon, 2003) reflects my observance of the deliberative and recursive nature of dissertation research (Piantanida & Garman, 1999).

2.4.1 Multiple stream model

The phrase, "an idea whose time has come" girds Kingdon's (2003) approach to understanding the policy making process as the exploration of how ideas or certain subjects come to capture the attention and action of policy makers (p. 1). The multiple stream model contends that three different streams exist within the policy making environment; at times, and for various reasons, these streams merge to create opportunities for the advancing of a policy agenda. The multiple stream model explores the agenda-setting process in an attempt to illuminate how the "historical development of an issue proceeds in jumps and step-level changes, not in gradual and incremental fashion" (Kingdon, 2003, p. 226).

The three streams in the multiple stream model are the problem stream, the policy stream, and the politics stream. The *problem stream* refers to crises or events that serve to raise

awareness of a problem and how situations come to be described as problems. The *policy stream* includes the generation of policy proposals that “float around in a ‘policy primeval soup’” (Kingdon, 2003, p. 18) in which policy ideas are generated and debated, resulting in the short list of policy ideas. The *political stream* addresses the policy environment which could include changes in administration and interest group pressure campaigns (Kingdon, 2003, p. 20). The significance of the multiple stream model is in the viewpoint that policy makers do not make policy as a result of some linear, rational approach, nor do they always and purposefully set about on a specific policy course. Instead, the multiple stream model contends that the coalescing of circumstances—problems, policy proposals, and politics—are the true drivers in the policy making process. This is not to say that individuals have no place in the policy making process; a host of the participants in the policy making process—Kingdon (2003) refers to them as the “players in the game” (p. 21)—play different roles, have different levels of influence, and have access to differing levels of resources.

The development of the multiple stream model (Kingdon, 2003) was based on studies of the federal government; as such, the participants are primarily government actors, most notably, the President, Congress, political appointees, etc. as well as special interest and advocacy groups that affect policy agendas, but the portrayal of the largely independent streams of problems, policies, and politics of the multiple stream model is applicable to an analysis of academic reorganizing initiatives in higher education. At any given time, internal and external stakeholders clamor for the attention of higher education leaders to resolve myriad issues associated with affordability, access, campus safety, athletics, institutional quality and reputation, to name but a few. At the same time, higher education leaders are often preoccupied with financial matters, such as revenue loss owing to cuts in state support and dwindling recruitment, and the added

pressure to generate revenue through research and fundraising. The multiple stream model's concern with understanding why some subjects rise on agendas while others are neglected, why policy makers pay serious attention to some alternatives at the expense of others, is useful in illuminating how and why higher education leaders—with the approval of the ultimate body of authority, the institution's Board of Trustees—make the policy choices that they do; in brief, “why participants deal with certain issues and neglect others” (Kingdon, 2003, p. 196).

2.5 SUMMARY

Organizational culture has an enduring quality: traditions, values and beliefs are transmitted to new members as the correct way to think and feel. Absent a revolution or major disruption, organizational culture becomes deeply embedded in the organization and is quite resistant to change. The literature on organizational culture in higher education reveals that the organization of faculty as communities of scholars is a long-standing tradition; the structure of academic departments as discipline-specific groupings of faculty has remained relatively stable since the faculty at Harvard organized themselves into academic disciplines in the 1800s. Likewise, the administrative culture has been relatively stable over time, demonstrating consistency in focusing on day-to-day operations and maintaining an arm's length involvement in academic affairs. Changes in the administrative culture are seen as a growth in the size and scope of daily operations, but the basic purpose remains the same: keep the institution afloat. That tension between academic and administrative cultures exists is, in some ways, a stable feature of organizational culture in higher education. Every article consulted on the subject of organizational culture in higher education describes or alludes to the conflict between academic

and administrative cultures; essays from faculty-turned-administrators provide first-person accounts of what that conflict looks and feels like.

An area in which the difference between faculty and administrator values is brought into sharp relief is in the increasing frequency among colleges and universities to pursue policies that reorganize institutional academic structure, most often in the form of merging or eliminating academic departments. Decisions to merge or eliminate academic departments emanate from the administrative realm; there are no documented instances of faculty volunteering to merge or eliminate their respective departments. Within the literature, academic reorganizing initiatives are discussed in the context of strategic goals associated with enhancing interdisciplinary scholarship. Interdisciplinary research for its own sake is viewed as the next logical step in research practice in an era of rapid technological advancements and growing socioeconomic complexities in a globalized world, but it is not a new construct. The literature also suggests that concern over *money*—saving it (by cutting costs) and generating more of it (through increased research funding and tuition revenue) —is the driver of academic reorganizing policies.

However, there is a dearth of peer-reviewed literature on reorganizing in higher education. That which exists is tangentially reflected in the literature on strategic planning and organizational change; within that subset, the literature is largely narrative in nature or focuses on individual institutions. Reorganizing efforts announced by colleges and universities in the United States are often covered by contemporary media, such as *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, especially when the reorganizing effort generates unrest among stakeholders. Within the twelve month of October 2014 – October 2015, *The Chronicle of Higher Education* reported on reorganizing efforts considered or underway at five state-university systems (Wisconsin, Georgia, Minnesota, Iowa, and Puerto Rico) and five individual institutions (University of

Southern Maine, Felician College, University of Kansas at Lawrence, University of Akron, and Birmingham-Southern University). The study by Zajac and Kraatz (1993) remained the only directly relevant, empirical study on reorganizing in higher education. Consultation with the professional librarians at the University of Pittsburgh Library System confirmed the absence of empirical studies on reorganizing in higher education.

Little discussion exists within the literature about the consequences for academic culture in the diminution of disciplinary focus in the trend towards interdisciplinarity. The literature has yet to conclude that academic reorganizing is *sine qua non* for interdisciplinarity. A similar level of inattention is paid to the consequences of having far fewer faculty involved in academic administration as department chairs. The literature alludes to faculty concerns in the wake of departmental consolidation, such as tenure decisions and academic reputation, but no studies have yet to be done to ascertain the effects, positive or negative, on faculty who remain within a restructured environment, nor can the literature as yet provide any insight into cultural changes and attitudes within academic disciplines more broadly, towards those of its members who are in multidisciplinary departments. The literature appears to suggest that entrenched accounting and resource allocation practices are as big a challenge as academic culture/structure in achieving the quest for interdisciplinarity.

3.0 RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Research shows that the organization of faculty as communities of scholars is a long-standing tradition in colleges and universities in the United States, as evidenced by the relative stability of the department/discipline structure (Abbott, 2002; Mills et al, 2005) and the idea that academic structure is what allows the development and determination of what constitutes knowledge and how knowledge is to be organized (Gumport, 2002; Frost & Jean, 2003). Yet, in some colleges and universities in the United States, that structure is under question for its perceived shortcomings in allowing the development of new majors, of new scientific breakthroughs, or encouraging cross-disciplinary research (Capaldi, 2009; Friedman, 2001; Miller et al., 2008). In response to these concerns, some colleges and universities in the United States are engaging in academic reorganizing—the reorganization of faculty by breaking down existing departmental and discipline-based structures.

The dearth of research on academic reorganization is problematic, especially as the practice grows. The claim that the traditional structure of faculty by discipline/department is a barrier to addressing critical research questions and in meeting student needs is not well substantiated in the literature, yet it appears to be taking on the qualities of opinions that, when repeated often enough, are taken (erroneously) as fact.

3.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study seeks to gain an understanding of how academic culture and structure are positioned within the policy process of academic reorganization.

3.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Question #1: **In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?**

Answering this question frames the context for organizational change, as communicated by higher education leaders and their agents, and establishes a foundation for drawing inferences about how higher education leaders create support for initiating organizational change. What situations in the internal and external environments are identified as creating a need for action? Does the message change when addressed to different audiences?

Research Question #2: **How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?** *Answering this question establishes a foundation for drawing inferences about how the characteristics of traditional academic structure and academic culture are claimed by higher education leaders and their agents as factors within the problem identification and policy proposals leading to academic reorganization. The question's relevance is drawn from findings in the literature review that the characteristics of academic structure and academic culture in*

American universities exert a strong, sometimes negative, force upon individual institutions and are obstacles to be removed in the pursuit of new knowledge needed for the 21st century.

Research Question #3: **What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?** *Answering this question establishes a foundation for drawing inferences about the positions of other stakeholders, how and what alliances may form in response to academic reorganization policy proposals, and for identifying alternative actions that were not addressed or pursued by higher education leaders. Answering this question may also allow for drawing inferences about the sources and level of support for maintaining the status quo of academic structure and faculty governance.*

3.4 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

This is a qualitative study which analyzes data from documents obtained through publicly available sources and upon request of individual institutions. Theories of organizational culture in higher education establish the legitimacy of inquiry into academic culture and structure. The method of content analysis is employed for data collection and data analysis. The multiple stream model of policy process illuminates the analysis. As an interpretive study design and the most common type of qualitative research, qualitative design supports the analysis of data for the purpose of identifying recurring patterns or themes (Merriam, 2009).

3.4.1 Content analysis

Content analysis is an analytic approach for the use of documents as the method of data collection and is suitable for use in studies that seek to describe and interpret the artifacts of a society or social group (Marshall & Rossman, 1999).

Before proceeding further, it is worth noting that some restrict the application of content analysis to quantitative studies (Krippendorff, 2013, citing Berelson, 1952), that is, the counting of frequencies of words or content. One criticism of a purely quantitative method of content analysis is that “using numbers instead of verbal categories or counting instead of listing quotes is merely convenient” and is “not a requirement for obtaining valid answers to a research question” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 88). The use of content analysis as a qualitative method is well documented and is the approach used for this study.

Within the literature on qualitative research methods, content analysis may be further amplified, as in Hsieh & Shannon’s (2005) distinctions of conventional, directed, and summative content analysis; and may also be referred to as document analysis, documentary research, or documentary studies. Claims as to what constitutes data, the coding process, the role of context in analysis and the purpose of the analysis allow for some distinctions while also demonstrating a degree of similarity among the methods.

Marshall & Rossman (1999) claim that the raw material for content analysis may be any form of communication, usually written materials (textbooks, novels, newspapers, e-mail messages); other forms of communication—such as music, pictures, or political speeches—may also be included (p. 117). Similarly, Krippendorff (2013) allows for a broad definition of what constitutes texts in content analysis to include not only written material but other matter, such as

“works of art, images, maps, sounds, signs, symbols, and numerical records as data, provided they speak to someone about phenomena outside of what can be sensed or observed” (p. 25). McCulloch’s (2004) approach to documentary studies eschews visual sources “such as paintings and film,” and “remains,” as in artifacts, claiming that use of those sources “would demand detailed attention deserving of a separate treatise” (p. 3). Bowen (2009) describes the data for document analysis as documents that “contain text (words) and images that have been recorded without a researcher’s intervention... other mute or trace evidence, such as cultural artifacts, is not included” (p. 27). The notation “without a researcher’s intervention” is an important distinction made by several sources in defining data for content analysis: McCulloch (2004) states that data for content analysis are those that have been produced “without any direct involvement on the part of the researcher, produced for other purposes and often with different priorities from those of the researcher” (p. 2). Krippendorff (2013) states that “most content analyses start with data that are not intended to be analyzed to answer specific research questions...(T)hey are texts in the sense that they are meant to be read, interpreted, and understood by people other than the analyst” (p. 36). All methods of content analysis share the function of organizing information into categories related to the research questions. Krippendorff (2013) defines the first step of the process as “unitizing,” that is, defining what is to be observed as well as how observations are to be recorded and thereafter considered data (p. 98). Units, according to Krippendorff (2013), are “wholes that analysts distinguish and treat as independent elements...the wholeness of a unit of analysis suggests that it is not further divided in the course of an analysis or at a particular stage of an analysis” (p. 98). Three kinds of units—sampling, coding, and context—have different functions in content analysis; each serve to increase the validity and reliability of the analysis. Sampling units set forth what is or is not included in an

analysis in a way that “acknowledges natural boundaries,” and while care should be taken in defining sampling units so that “all relevant information is contained within individual sampling units,” it is also acknowledged that “it is not easy to break a highly interconnected stream of messages into separate sampling units” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 100). Coding units are contained in sampling units, and are the “specific segment of content that is characterized by placing it in a given category” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 100 citing Holsti, 1969); context units surround and help to identify the coding unit (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 100).

Krippendorff (2013) states that “every content analysis requires a context within which the available texts are examined...(T)he analyst must, in effect, construct a world in which the texts make sense and can answer the analyst’s research questions” (p. 30). Context is the “something else” that lends significance to the findings of content analysis (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 34). McCulloch (1999) emphasizes the second definition of context when he discusses the role of the content analyst in trying to “understand documents in relation to their milieu;” to examine documents without considering their social and historical context “misses the point” of content analysis (p. 6).

Hsieh and Shannon (2005) emphasize, in varying degrees, the definition of context in their discussion of three types of content analysis, conventional, directed, and summative: all three focus on the “characteristics of language as communication with attention to the contextual meaning of the text” (p. 1278) although summative content analysis relies heaviest on the counting the frequency of specific words or content to achieve its purpose, the identification of patterns to discover the range of meanings a word can have in a given context (p. 1285).

The role of context is evident in the discussion of the uses of content analysis. Krippendorff (2013) defines content analysis as a research technique for making replicable and

valid inferences from the systematic reading of a body of texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use (p. 24). In utilizing content analysis to describe a phenomenon that cannot be directly observed—wartime propaganda analysts in this example—Krippendorff (2013) notes that

Analysts are typically not interested in the literal meanings...in the rhetorical devices...the analysts must understand that the broadcasts are part of a complex communication network...the analysts have to know something about the actors involved...the picture they construct of what they are dealing with amounts to the context of their analysis (p. 32).

This study does not seek to compare the cases featured nor to validate the claims used to justify academic reorganization or to explain different tactics employed in academic reorganization. Rather, the intent is to describe how concepts of academic structure and culture are represented in the documents (written communications) of higher education leaders and their agents in the policy process of academic reorganization, and how constituent groups are recorded as having responded to the calls to restructure the academic organization of faculty and to what extent might a defense of academic structure have taken place. Therefore, it is the practical use of content analysis as described by Krippendorff (2013) that guides the development of the research methods for this study.

3.4.2 Limitations and generalizability

The scope of the study is restricted in several ways. The chief limitation is that the data arises from only a few institutions, likely three to five in number. Using documents as the sole source of data presents a number of limitations, including:

- Insufficient detail: documents are produced for some purpose other than research;
- Low retrievability: documentation is sometimes difficult to retrieve or not retrievable; and
- Biased selectivity: in an organizational context, the available documents are likely to be aligned with corporate policies and procedures and with the agenda of the organization's principals (Bowen, 2009, p. 31-32).

Therefore, the study is limited by the quality and scope of data recorded and made available by the institution and from other sources. Relationships between and among individuals, or the presence of “hidden agendas,” in the formulation of the reorganizing policy likewise cannot be discerned from the data. The study is delimited by the number of institutions deemed to be suitably represented as determined by the inclusion criteria (**Table 2**). The study will make no claim as to the generalizability of the findings.

3.5 SAMPLE SELECTION

Sample selection will occur in stages and by the application of inclusion criteria. In the first stage, media reports, found primarily in *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, will be used to develop a working list of colleges and universities in the United States that have undergone actions described as academic reorganizing or academic restructuring within the past ten years (2005 – 2015). In the second stage, an initial web-based search of the institutions identified in the first stage will be conducted to arrive at a sample of institutions that meet the criteria outlined in

Table 2. In the third stage, the remaining institutions will be contacted for assistance in providing additional documents relevant to the study purpose. The final sample selection is anticipated to be between three and five institutions. Sample selection is intentionally limited to institutions within the United States in consideration of the assertion that the traditional structure of organizing faculty by department/discipline is largely an American construct (Hecht et al. 1999, p. 22). In addition, the restriction to institutions in the United States reflects the researcher's preference to use documents that are written in her native language.

Table 2 Sample selection

<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Include</i>	<i>Exclude</i>
1. <i>Occurrence</i>	Within the past ten years	More than ten years ago
2. <i>Impact</i>	The merging, elimination, or substantive reconstitution affecting colleges or schools; may or may not include the elimination of department chair positions	Elimination of degree programs or underperforming departments
3. <i>Reason</i>	Promote interdisciplinarity, increase research, transform institution	Low enrollments
4. <i>Documents</i>	Readily available via publicly accessible sources	Little to no publicly available documents
5. <i>Status</i>	Major progress towards reorganization	Failed or little evidence of substantive progress
6. <i>Leadership</i>	Stable leadership since initiation of reorganization	Leaders initiating reorganization are no longer at the institution (may include if two or more inclusion criteria exist)

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

3.6.1 Documents, defined

Data will be collected from publicly available documents promulgated by the institution and from documents provided by and through the individual institutions upon request. Data will also be collected from other sources arising outside the institution, such as newspapers and on social media. Web pages are included in the definition of documents. A range of documents will be sought so as to encompass the representation of reorganizing as presented by the institution to different audiences and responses by constituent groups to reorganization proposals. Documents that provide context and background information on the institution's internal and external environments, if not explicitly related to the reorganization, may also be included. For the purpose of this study, *sampling units* (Krippendorff, 2013) are the documents associated with academic reorganization or restructuring at colleges and universities in the United States, wherein the reorganization is found to satisfy all conditions of the inclusion criteria (Table 2).

3.6.2 Retrieving Documents

Internet searches will guide the identification and retrieval of documents. The web sites of institutions identified pursuant to the sample selection criteria will be searched for documents associated with the academic reorganization.

Table 3 delineates the anticipated steps in retrieving documents from college and university web sites.

Table 3 Steps used to retrieve documents from institutional web sites

<i>Step</i>	<i>Description</i>
1.	In a search engine, enter name of college or university.
2.	Use the college or university's web search function from the home page and enter the phrase(s) used by that institution related to academic reorganization (e.g. "academic restructuring," "strategic realignment," "strategic planning," etc.)
3.	Screen-shot the search results (the screen shot will be part of the evidence trail).
4.	For each search result, open the link and skim for relevance to the research questions.
5.	Save relevant documents to a secure cloud-based data storage system.
6.	When reviewing the document, looks for links to other related documents; include these in the evidence trail and follow steps #4 & #5.

Internet searches will be used to find documents representing the voices of other constituents and that may not appear in the documents promulgated by the institution, for example, student newspapers, newspaper editorials, Facebook groups and other social media sites and blogs (Table 4). Additional documents will be sought via requests made directly to the institutions and other sources by the researcher.

Table 4 Steps used to retrieve documents from non-institutional web sites

<i>Step</i>	<i>Description</i>
1.	In a search engine, enter name of college or university along with the phrases used by that institution related to academic reorganization (e.g. "academic restructuring," "strategic realignment," "strategic planning," etc.)
2.	Look for results from non-institutional sources: newspapers, blogs, etc.
3.	Screen-shot the search results (the screen shot will be part of the evidence trail).
4.	For each search result, open the link and skim for relevance to the research questions.
5.	Save relevant documents to a secure cloud-based data storage system.
6.	When reviewing the document, looks for links to other related documents; include these in the evidence trail and follow steps #4 & #5.

3.6.3 Safeguarding

A cloud-based storage system will be used to maintain all data, to encourage use for future research, and to demonstrate a credible chain of evidence (Yin, 2014).

3.6.4 Sampling and coding units

The purpose of using codes within data analysis is to identify segments of data that are responsive to the research questions (Merriam, 2009). A unit of data is “any meaningful (or potentially meaningful) segment of data...a unit can be as small as a word...or as large as several pages” (Merriam, 2009, p. 176-177). Similarly, Krippendorff (2013) defines “sampling units” as that which distinguishes text for inclusion or exclusion in an analysis, and “coding units” as specific segments of content that are smaller than sampling units. In content analysis, the smallest coding unit is a word; however, for the purpose of this study, the analysis of an individual word out of content will not suffice. Nor can it be presumed that the paragraph or sentence structure within documents will break neatly into the desired units. Taking heed that the “unit should be the smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself,” (Merriam, 2009, p. 177, citing Lincoln & Guba, 1985), the coding units for this study are passages, defined by this researcher as excerpts from a text that may be more than one sentence to several paragraphs long, extracted from the documents with their context so as to help identify the unit as relevant to the study’s purpose. The decision-making matrix for the hierarchy of units employed in this content analysis is represented in **Figure 1**.

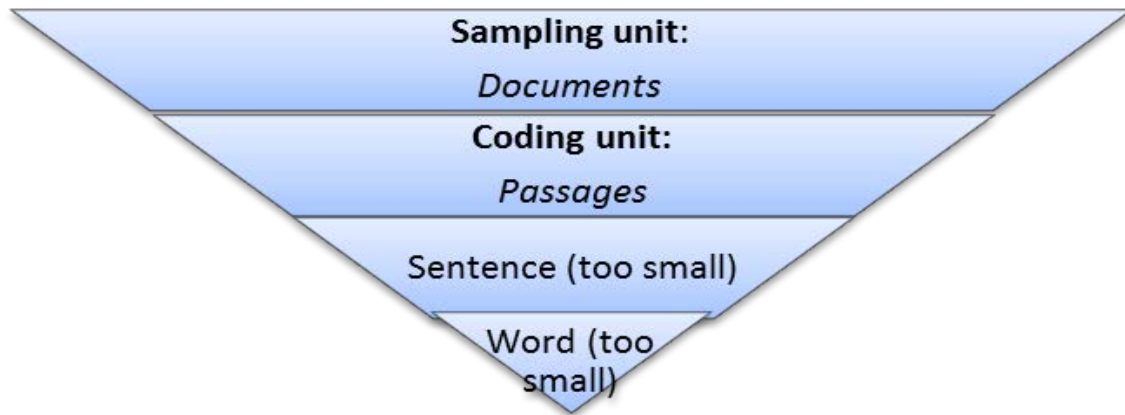


Figure 1 Hierarchy of units in content analysis

3.6.5 Protection of human subjects

All requirements and standards of the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board will be followed in the pursuit of this study.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

3.7.1 Identification of coding units

The objects in this study are academic culture and academic structure in the context of academic reorganization. There is no existing matrix for the identification of content related to academic culture and structure (coding unit = passages) so the researcher created one as represented in

Table 5; the matrix draws upon the language of academic culture, academic structure, and academic reorganization as discovered during the literature review.

Table 5 Identification of content related to academic reorganization

<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Possible keywords and topic areas found in passages of text</i>
Academic reorganization	<i>Reorganization, restructuring, transformation, interdisciplinarity, research, collaboration, synergy, quality, mission, values</i>
Academic culture	Passages including word(s) coming before or after “academic” <i>Values; principles</i> <i>Scholarship; disciplines; intellectual</i>
Academic structure	Passages including word(s) coming before or after “academic” <i>Inefficiencies/efficiencies</i> <i>Budget; reduce; save; generate; revenue</i> <i>Merge; eliminate; combine</i> <i>Department chairs; program chairs; deans</i> <i>Collaboration; innovation; interdisciplinary; synergy; quality; goals</i>

Documents shall first be skimmed then re-read for thorough examination. Passages that encompass keywords, phrases or topic areas (**Table 5**) will be marked and saved into a spreadsheet for later analysis using Dedoose, a secure, cloud-based application for analyzing qualitative data. Dedoose also allows for hyperlinks to full documents, thereby adding to the reliability of data collection and analysis.

3.7.2 Analysis

Data analysis will begin with, not after, data collection; refining categories and the placement of data (passages) into categories will be a feature of ongoing data collection, reflection and deliberation. Passages will be organized into categories designed to reflect the objects of inquiry

identified in the research questions. Consistent with the intent of this study, the analysis will seek to demonstrate how, through evidence found in the data (passages), concepts of academic structure and culture are represented in the documents (written communications) of higher education leaders and their agents in the policy process of academic reorganization, and how constituent groups are recorded as having responded to the calls to restructure the academic organization of faculty and to what extent might a defense of academic structure have taken place. The proposed relationship among research questions, sampling units, coding units, and the analysis is represented in **Table 6** while the expected sequencing from sampling to data collection to analysis is represented in **Figure 2**.

Table 6 Research question matrix

<i>Research Question</i>	<i>Sampling Units</i>	<i>Coding Units</i>	<i>Analysis</i>
In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?	Institutionally promulgated or sanctioned documents	Passages	Communications that reveals the focus of attention and the justification for action
How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?	Institutionally promulgated or sanctioned documents	Passages	Communications that reflect attitudes, interests, and values (cultural patterns) of population group <i>higher education leaders & agents</i>
What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?	Externally promulgated documents	Passages	Communications that reflect attitudes, interests, and values (cultural patterns) of population group <i>constituents</i>

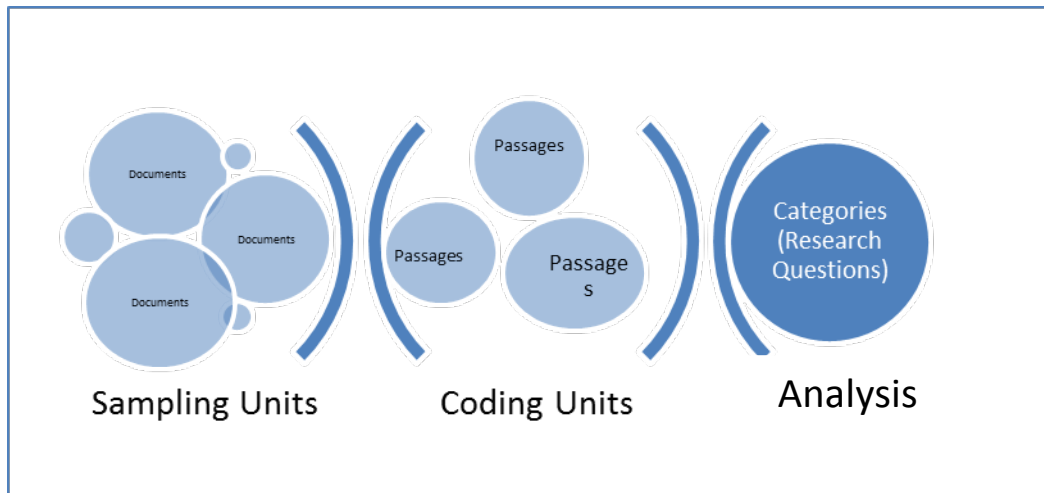


Figure 2 Sequences in data collection and analysis

3.8 CONCLUSIONS

The findings from the literature compelled me to consider how and where academic culture is situated in the policy-making process of reorganization. Academic reorganization represents a major policy change within higher education institutions, yet it is not well represented in empirical studies. The research method described in this chapter is selected so as to establish a descriptive of the policy streams present in an environment of academic reorganization. Content analysis is an appropriate method to describe the background, context, and development of how a specific aspect of policy making—alterations to academic structure and culture—were positioned within the policy framework by both policy promoters and policy opponents.

4.0 RESULTS

This study sought to gain an understanding of how academic culture and structure are positioned within the communications associated with the policy process of academic reorganization. The growing practice of academic reorganization at colleges and universities in the United States often involves the dismantling of traditional academic departments, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars within disciplines, and the resultant reduction in faculty serving as department chairs.

Sample selection was conducted using the methods outlined in Chapter 3, resulting in the selection of the following institutions: Clemson University; Kean University, and Temple University. A summary of how the institutions met the sample selection criteria can be found in Appendix A.

Sampling units for this study were the documents associated with academic reorganization or restructuring at the three institutions selected for the study. One hundred seventeen (117) documents were initially identified as meeting the following criteria: (1) related to one of the institutions in the period leading up to and/or including the academic restructuring; and (2) related to one or more of the research questions. Following the initial review of documents, 15 were omitted from the study because the content was redundant to other sources (for example, an institution's news release that repeated the exact same information as in another institutional

document, such as a strategic plan). The final list of documents used in this analysis can be found in Appendices B, C, and D, and included the following types of documents:

- Blogs
- External media coverage
- Internal news releases and newsletters
- Institutional strategic plans
- Minutes of faculty senate meetings
- Minutes of a collective bargaining unit representing faculty
- Minutes of graduate student senate meetings
- Minutes of Board of Trustees meetings
- Reports and correspondence from professional associations and accrediting bodies

Coding units for this study were passages, defined by this researcher as excerpts from a text that may be more than one sentence to several paragraphs long, extracted from the documents with their context so as to help identify the unit as relevant to the study's purpose. Content analysis of documents associated with the academic restructuring initiatives at the three universities was conducted to answer the following questions:

1. In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?
2. How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?
3. What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?

4.1 CLEMSON UNIVERSITY

4.1.1 Institutional Data

Located in Clemson, South Carolina, Clemson University is a public, doctoral-granting university classified as “highest research activity” by The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. As of 2015, Clemson University reported enrollments of 17,740 undergraduate, degree-seeking students, 2,875 masters-degree seeking students, and 1,469 doctoral students among its five colleges and the School of Education; the university reported a total of 5,063 employees comprised of 1,431 faculty and 3,632 staff. (“Clemson Mini Fact Book,” 2016). Clemson University’s proposed operating budget for fiscal year 2015 was \$956.2 million (“Clemson Budget Document,” 2015). Clemson is governed by a Board of Trustees comprised of seven Trustees who select their successors and six Trustees who are appointed by the State Legislature (“Clemson University Board of Trustees Home,” n.d.).

Clemson University was founded in 1889 as the result of a bequest by Thomas Clemson. In his will, Clemson bequeathed his plantation and \$80,000 in personal assets to establish an “educational institution that would teach scientific agriculture and the mechanical arts to South Carolina’s young people” (“About Clemson University,” n.d.). Clemson Agricultural College, as it was known when it opened in 1893, was originally an all-male military school. In 1955, the college began to admit civilian students and became coeducational. Clemson achieved University status in 1964 with formal recognition by the South Carolina state Legislature (“About Clemson University, n.d.).

Notable in Clemson’s history is the 1962 case of *Harvey Gantt v. The Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina*, in which plaintiff Harvey Gantt argued that he had been

denied admission to the college based on his race. Gantt prevailed and as a result, Clemson University became—on January 28, 1963—the first white college or university in the state of South Carolina to integrate (“Harvey Gantt and the Desegregation of Clemson University,” n.d.).

4.1.2 Institutional leader at the time of restructuring

James P. Clements, Ph.D., became Clemson University’s fifteenth president on December 31, 2013, with the official installation taking place on May 9, 2014 (“The Inauguration of James Patrick Clements,” n.d.). Clements earned a B.S. in Computer Science and an M.S. and Ph.D. in Operations Analysis from the University of Maryland as well as an M.S. in Computer Science from Johns Hopkins University. His appointment as President of Clemson University was his second turn as a university president: previously, Clements served as the president of West Virginia University (earlier, he served as that institution’s Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs). Clements was appointed President of Clemson following the results of a national search, necessitated by the retirement of James F. Barker who had served almost 14 years as Clemson President (“Barker to retire as Clemson president...,” 2013). The University claims that under the leadership of President Clements,

Clemson has reached several milestones — the largest campus development initiative in university history, a record number of student applications with the strongest academic profile ever; and a record-breaking year in fundraising, with more than \$250 million raised in private gifts since Clements joined the University (“James P. Clements, Ph.D., President, Clemson University,” n.d.).

4.1.3 Scope of restructuring

President Clements sought to restructure Clemson University's academic structure by "pulling the traditional liberal arts out of colleges that now have both applied and liberal arts departments and putting them into two new colleges, one science and one behavioral and health science," (Barnett, 2015). The result was to increase by two the total number of colleges on campus, for a total of seven colleges. The proposal was approved by the University's Board of Trustees at its October, 2015 meeting. The restructuring is anticipated to be in place by July 1, 2016, in time for incoming students in the fall of 2016. The seven new colleges are: College of Agriculture, Forestry and Life Sciences; College of Architecture, Arts and Humanities; College of Behavioral, Social and Health Sciences; College of Business; College of Education; College of Engineering, Computing and Applied Sciences; and College of Science.

4.1.4 Documents

In 2014, when Clemson University had been working with an existing strategic plan, titled "2020 Road Map," dated April, 2011, President Clements appointed Provost Robert H. Jones with the task of updating the strategic plan. The process was referred to as "2020 Forward," and the resulting document—the new strategic plan—was referred to as "Clemson Forward." The design and maintenance of the University's web site made it easy to locate and retrieve a number of documents associated with its strategic planning processes. Similarly, the University's web site made available minutes of Faculty Senate meetings, Board of Trustees meetings, and other internal documents which provided important details related to the research questions. External media and blogs provided access to documents that reflected the voices of others.

4.1.5 Research Question #1: In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?

4.1.5.1 Aspirational themes

Coming (relatively) soon on the heels of the 2011 strategic plan, the justification of a new strategic plan was articulated in the context of building on success:

The ultimate vision of Clemson’s previous strategic plan — the 2020 Road Map —was achieved in October 2014 when U.S.News & World Report ranked Clemson a Top 20 Public University as part of its annual guide to “America’s Best Colleges.’...*The achievement of this Top 20 ranking naturally opened the question of “what comes next?”* This question is what led President Clements to charge the institution to refocus the priorities within the 2020 Road Map’ (“Frequently asked questions,” n.d., n.p.)

The case for change at Clemson was represented primarily as an articulation of institutional aspirations. In the documents associated with the ClemsonForward plan, the phrase, “solidify our place among the nation’s great public, land-grant universities,” appears with identifiable frequency. Quotes attributed to Clements suggest that the aspirational narrative was omnipresent in his campaign of outreach to secure support for his plan among faculty, staff, and the board of trustees. At a faculty meeting in late 2015, as reported by the University’s news service, Clements is quoted as stating, “It’s about *moving forward, striving for new heights* and solidifying our place as one of the nation’s top public research universities,’ (“Clements lauds 2015 accomplishments...,”2015, n.p., emphasis added). The metaphor of moving forward

continued up to and including Clements' presentation to the Board of Trustees: "This is a plan to *move Clemson forward*, to solidify our place among the nation's great public, land-grant universities and to prepare for the next 50 years," ("Clemson trustees back academic reorganization, n.p., emphasis added).

4.1.5.2 Inclusiveness

Clements' communications also reveal a theme of inclusiveness. Earlier in the planning process, the University's news service reported that a number of committees had been formed to "drive" the planning process, "comprised of a diverse mix of faculty, staff and students," ("Strategic plan update...", 2014, n.p.). In a presentation to faculty, Clements is quoted as stating, "Over the past few weeks we've worked to distill and prioritize all of that input so that we can communicate the plan in a way that is simple, focused and clearly spells out where we're going," ("Clements lauds 2015 accomplishments...", 2015, n.p.). And in the draft strategic plan disseminated in February 2016, Clements' "Dear Clemson Family" message recounted that the

strategic planning process involved more than 150 faculty, staff and students who served on committees that identified major strategic priorities and outlined concrete steps required to meet goals. Hundreds more members of the campus community gave feedback via town hall meetings, online surveys and Web comments ("ClemsonForward Plan Draft," 2016, p.1).

4.1.5.3 Financial considerations

Issue of fiscal pressures were virtually absent in Clemson's documents concerning its strategic plan; in fact, and in contrast, a strategic plan update in the form of a PowerPoint presentation implored the audience against constraining their imaginations with worries over the budget:

Please don't focus on budget, please do think about visibility and reputation of program; the future of learning, research, talent needs, technologies; affinities and synergies that can help the department/school (“Strategic plan update,” 2014, n.p.).

And the institutionally crafted “frequently asked questions” page on the strategic planning web site offered this comment on finances:

[Question]: Many of ClemsonForward’s initiatives sound expensive. How will we pay for it? [Answer]: The vision of ClemsonForward is ambitious but we can achieve many of the plan’s specific elements with very modest investment. Selected areas will require significant and carefully targeted funding which we will pay for through more effective enrollment management, new sources of entrepreneurial revenue and private giving, more careful stewardship of financial returns from existing research... and other techniques to *improve efficiency and reduce expense* (“Frequently asked questions, n.d., n.p., emphasis added.

4.1.5.4 Conclusions to RQ #1

Clemson University’s case for organizational change was positioned squarely as a self-empowering decision to aim for greatness. The case suggests an awareness of principles of organizational change, such as creating a motivation or a readiness for change and identifying a more desirable alternative (Waclawski & Allan, 2002). In contrast to typical motives for restructuring, Clemson University’s strategic plan did not speak of a crisis or problem; instead, the restructuring was positioned as a natural next step in building upon the institution’s success,

as a positive force in achieving the next level of national prominence. Efficiency is mentioned as a tactic, but certainly not the goal.

4.1.6 RQ #2 How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?

4.1.6.1 “Key Enabler”

President Clements positioned college reorganization as one of three key enablers in achieving national prominence. This theme—and almost the exact same wording—is repeated in documents, statements, and in news releases associated with the restructuring:

Clemson’s proposed college reorganization will create an optimal path for academic programs to *achieve national prominence* by establishing colleges that are more focused and aligning departments with compatible structures and missions. The goal is to position the university for excellence in 2020, 2025 and beyond (“2020 Forward: Guiding principles created...,” 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

And:

College reorganization is one of three key enablers to the University’s long-term strategic plan...to build an *optimal path for academic units to achieve national prominence*. The new college structure creates more focused academic units and positions Clemson to compete more effectively with aspirational peer institutions (“Frequently asked questions, n.d., n.p.).

In announcing the Board's approval of the restructuring, the theme of achieving national prominence through academic restructuring is consistent throughout presidential messages:

College reorganization will create academic units that are more coherent, focused and able to serve the University's core research and teaching missions.

Reorganization will also help recruit top faculty, staff and administrators and will *enhance national reputation* by providing college environments that match those of other top-tier universities (ClemsonForward Plan Draft, 2016, p. 21, emphasis added).

In the parlance of public relations professionals, Present Clements stayed "on message."

4.1.6.2 Research and Reward Structures

Further exploration of documents associated with the restructuring suggested that two elements of academic structure were singled out for their impact on achieving the restructuring's objectives: research and reward structures. Although the phrase *interdisciplinary research* is not prominent in the documents representing Clemson's reorganization, the intent reads clearly in statements associated with the desire to increase the institution's research productivity. The existing academic structure was singled out as deficient in supporting the institution's aspirational goals, as evidenced by this quote attributed to the provost of Clemson University:

Jones, who presented the reorganization plan to trustees, said the university examined all of its current colleges and found 'a lot of them just had the basic research pieces,' (Clark, 2015, n.p.).

Just what “basic research pieces” meant was not clear, although additional exploration of documents suggests that it was the reward structures of evaluation, tenure and promotion that were identified as part of the reorganization effort necessary for building and maintaining a nationally competitive research program. The ClemsonForward Plan Draft articulates the priority of promoting “a culture of discovery by *raising research expectations and rewards for research excellence*” (2016, p. 5, emphasis added) and on “building a culture of curiosity, creativity and scholarship,” (2016, p. 6), the success of which would be measured by external funding to support research. The entire quote is provided for context:

[Clemson will] promote a culture of discovery by raising research expectations and rewards for research excellence...As an important first step, academic departments and colleges will review evaluation, tenure and promotion standards for research in light of ClemsonForward goals. As research performance increases, reward structures will reflect the effort required and the measurable achievements that result. To this end, ClemsonForward *enhances compensation strategies to better reflect research excellence*, tie rank advancement and research resources more closely to research performance, provide more consistent and predictable research incentives, and structure workloads to accommodate the effort required to build and maintain a nationally competitive research program." Access to new forms of benchmarking data now allow institutions of higher education to better understand how scholarly productivity (e.g., articles, books, citations, grants) compares with that of selected peers. This provides the opportunity to set incremental benchmarks against which research productivity

can be better understood (emphasis added). (ClemsonForward Plan Draft, 2016, p. 6).

A statement by a Clemson administrator, the Interim Vice President for Research, concerning the value of faculty research was found in a most unlikely location—minutes of a meeting of the Graduate Student Senate—but it speaks volumes as to what may have been an undocumented criticism of the restructuring plan:

Not all of you are in fields that attract lots of dollars. I emphasize dollars because research takes money. However, I am not short-changing those of you who are not in fields that don't obtain lots of money because you pull through in other ways ("Minutes, Graduate Student Senate Meeting," 2015, n.p.).

Nothing was found in the restructuring documents to indicate how faculty who "pull through in other ways" would be evaluated or rewarded in the new research-centric environment.

4.1.6.3 Accreditation--and a taste of disciplinary superiority

A specific example of the perception that the existing structure was holding back the University was accreditation. A local media report on Clemson's reorganization stated that "the structure of the colleges allowed for only certain accreditation because, in the case of the College of Business and Behavioral Science, the dean is business related, not behavioral science oriented;" and in the same article, Provost Jones is quoted as stating that "now, those programs will have their own deans, and I think we will see them grow in research and graduate studies" (Clark, 2015). Indeed, the interim dean of the new College of Business, Bobby McCormick, portrayed an attitude of rising fortunes for the Business School (if not collaboration with the rest of the University), when he wrote in his blog:

We are the biggest and fastest growing of any college on campus with an annual growth rate of 2.4 percent, 1 percent ahead of the university average. As such, we are Clemson's door to the nation, drawing from the top students across the country, like no one else at Clemson. As an identifiable business entity, *we are in a better position than anyone else to give Clemson the national stature it seeks and deserves* ("Bobby's Blog," 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

Interim Dean McCormick toned down some of the rhetoric when he generously acknowledged that the business school's "ability to draw students from beyond South Carolina's borders paints a brilliant future, not just for business education at Clemson but for the university's stature at a national level" ("Bobby's Blog," 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

4.1.6.4 Organizational culture

Clemson documents did not suggest that there was an all-out war on the existing academic structure or to position the structure as inherently wrong or unduly obstructive to organizational goals. Rather, changing the organizational structure was positioned as a tactic to achieve the institution's aspirational goals in a rapidly changing environment. However, two statements by senior administrators at Clemson appear to acknowledge that culture, more so than structure, influences achievement of organizational goals. First, this quote was attributed to Provost Jones:

Clemson's goals could be met under the current structure, and *changing the structure won't make a difference unless other changes are made in the university's culture* and programs, Jones said (Barnett, 2015, emphasis added).

This quote, attributed to the institution's Interim Vice President for Research, also suggests that culture is a factor in facilitating collaboration:

When we re-organizing [sic] in 1995, we consolidated from 10 colleges to 5. So we saw we'd save money. That reorganization caused a lot of people to be together that otherwise wouldn't have been and that triggered a lot more collaboration. Splitting some of the college may seem counterintuitive, however *the reality is that college structure does not dictate collaboration. It is the individuals and the culture* ("Minutes, Graduate Student Senate Meeting," 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

There was nothing evident in the available documents that suggested any kind of parallel planning to address organizational culture or to further explicate the above statements.

4.1.6.5 Conclusions to RQ #2

References to academic culture and structure are interwoven in the narratives of academic reorganization at Clemson University, most prominently in relation to research productivity. This narrative fits with the overall theme of organizational change, the more effective use of the human resources of the organization (Boyer & Crockett, 1973).

4.1.7 RQ #3: What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?

4.1.7.1 Impeding existing collaboration and interdisciplinarity

Faculty opposition to the academic restructuring proposal was revealed in a document titled "College Restructuring Open Forum Essay Final," dated August 24, 2015. The document's uniform resource locator (URL) associates it with the faculty senate and free speech. Purportedly

authored by six faculty members in the Environmental Engineering and Earth Sciences department, the letter outlines objections to the proposed split of the College of Engineering and Science and creation of a new College of Engineering and Computing. Objections were on the grounds that the existing structure already fostered interdisciplinarity and that the proposed structure would create new barriers and make it more difficult to collaborate:

With the new college organization, we as a faculty must work harder to maintain and grow collaborations across the new colleges. The hope is that these colleges will represent only administrative units with little impedance to any collaborative research and teaching efforts, but even then there will *undoubtedly be increased barriers to collaboration* (e.g., generation of redundant, opaque, and perhaps conflicting administrative requirements between Colleges) (“Discussion of the pending split...,” 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

Clemson faculty also pointed to the competitive advantage of their existing interdisciplinary department when it comes to recruiting students:

Due to the multidisciplinary nature of our department, we recruit students from a variety both physical science and engineering backgrounds. In many cases, the students are drawn to the combined College of Engineering and Science which is a *stark contrast* to traditional programs within separate colleges of engineering or science (“Discussion of the pending split...,” 2015, n.p., emphasis added)

Based on the above, the reader may be lead to conclude that collaboration and interdisciplinarity was alive and well in the existing structure. Yet, the essay—in a remarkable moment of candor—demonstrated that collaboration and interdisciplinarity had in fact not been achieved; the statement beginning with, “we had a chance...,” foretold of an unmet expectation:

Within a college that combines engineering and sciences, *we had a chance to give students a truly interdisciplinary and/or multidisciplinary experience* that will prepare them for the complex systems they will encounter after graduation. That being said, based on our experience within this college, *we are sad to acknowledge that thus far we have failed in our efforts to fully bring science and engineering disciplines together.* There are some notable attempts... (“Discussion of the pending split...,” 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

Rather than structure, it was—in the opinion of the letter’s authors—an absence of equal respect among and for the disciplines that contributed to the inability to:

However, to truly bring together engineering and science, we must have *equal respect* for the sciences and engineering...A considerable effort must be made to demonstrate the value that each discipline brings to the overall research and educational effort. Such an effort requires an investment from the university administration and commitment from the faculty to promote multidisciplinary efforts. (“Discussion of the pending split...., 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

The essay’s writers opined that the university should “incentivize collaborations across departments in the College of Engineering and Sciences, better yet across the entire university,” instead of restructuring and further suggested that academic culture, not structure, is the obstacle to interdisciplinarity:

We should work to remove any barriers that hinder collaboration across colleges and even departments within colleges. A good first step will be to *develop a culture across the University which fosters respect for all disciplines,* acknowledges success based on the metrics relevant to that discipline, and

provides incentives for cross---discipline collaborations rather than investments within the disciplinary silos of a College. This will elevate the value of multidisciplinary research and teaching across the Clemson campus, may help to reduce hindrances to collaboration, and reinforce the fundamental concept that all departments are valuable regardless of discipline (“College Reorganization Open Letter...,” 2015, n.p., emphasis added).

The concerns raised by the faculty in the open forum essay reflect a sense of loss resulting from the splitting of the colleges. This is an interesting point, in light of findings from the literature that the designation of a school (or department) with an identifiable discipline bestows legitimacy and prestige to the members. The literature review findings would suggest that faculty would prefer disciplinary distinction in the form of a separate college, yet that was not the case at Clemson (at least for the six faculty members who authored the open essay).

One unexpected component among the voices of constituents is one that framed the restructuring as a human rights issue. Todd May, identified as Professor, Department of Philosophy and Religion, authored an open forum letter titled “The Administration of Vulnerability.” The document appears alongside the aforementioned “Discussion of college restructuring...” and shares with that document its provenance within the Faculty Senate. Addressing the restructuring as the “increasing corporatization of the university, Professor May warns of the ill-effects of increasing administrative power on academic freedom and on the livelihoods of those who depend upon the university for continued employment:

We are familiar with the administrative encomiums to open discussion and dialogue. However, when the university is being restructured to create more vulnerability among its faculty and staff, *free expression withers* and those

encomiums ring hollow...We can be quite sure the administration will not leap to address this issue. The more vulnerable the staff and faculty are, the more powerful the administration is. Does the recent history of Clemson (or any history of any institution) evidence a willingness of those in power to cede it to those over whom their power is exercised? (“The Administration of Vulnerability,” 2016, n.p.).

Professor May calls upon his colleagues—tenured faculty—to put a stop to the power grab by administration and to stand up for those who cannot stand up for themselves. Professor May spoke to the “vulnerable people” in the community as those who lack the protection afforded by tenure, specifically, staff and non-tenure track faculty (“The Administration of Vulnerability,” 2016, n.p.):

There is only one group that can confront this issue: the tenured faculty. If we allow the trend to continue, we will be participating in the demise of the university as we know it...we must pull together, stand alongside the most vulnerable people in our community, and demand that the administration create a more empowering employment structure (“The Administration of Vulnerability,” 2016, n.p.).

It cannot be determined from any available documents what kind of response was generated by this open essay, either by the administration, the faculty, or any other groups.

4.1.7.2 Conclusions to RQ #3

While the engineering faculty voiced disagreement with the splitting of engineering and science into separate colleges, the literature allows us to consider the move from the perspective of the

institution: splitting engineering and science into their own colleges may have been a maneuver to symbolize the institution's strength in those areas. As Gumpert noted (2002), representing a full range of knowledge categories in the academic structure can enhance the legitimacy of a campus that strives to be seen as a comprehensive university; and the establishment of new programs may further the aspirations of those campuses seeking to emulate the academic offerings of higher status campuses.

The introduction of the human rights dimension into the conversation by one faculty member stands out. In reflecting upon the context in which the essay was written, this researcher notes that the university was simultaneously engaged in a debate about renaming a building (Tillman Hall) whose namesake, Governor Tillman, was involved in the lynching of African-Americans and in passing laws designed to reduce the impact of black voters and politicians; Tillman was also acknowledged as a key figure in the founding of Clemson University (Cary, 2015, n.p.). Perhaps the timing of the restructuring, coinciding with the public debate about the university's perceived celebration of Tillman's racist past, inspired at least one faculty member to consider the damning effects of the restructuring to those who lack the protections afforded by tenure, namely, staff and non-tenure track faculty.

4.2 KEAN UNIVERSITY

4.2.1 Institutional Data

Kean University is a coeducational public research university with locations in Union and Hillside, New Jersey (“About Kean University,” n.d.). In 2015, Kean reported a total enrollment of 13,108 undergraduate students and 2,298 graduate students; and reported. A total of 406 full-time and 1,009 adjunct faculty members were reported teaching among the University’s 50 undergraduate programs, 32 graduate programs, and 3 doctoral programs (“Office of Institutional Research Fact Sheet 15,” n.d.). Employee data was not available. Kean University is classified as a “larger research program” by The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education.

Kean is governed by a Board of Trustees consisting of 15 members appointed by the Governor of New Jersey, two Trustee Emeriti, as well as a student trustee representative elected by the student body (“Kean University Board of Trustees,” n.d.). For 2015, Kean’s reported expenditures were \$191.4 million (“Annual Budget Fiscal Year 2015”). In 2012, Kean added a campus in Wenzhou, China; in doing so, Kean became the only university in New Jersey, and one of only three in the country, approved to operate an additional location in China (“About Kean University,” n.d.).

Kean University was founded in 1855 under the name Newark State College as a normal school for training teachers and principals for the City of Newark; it was also the first public post-secondary institution in New Jersey (“Kean University Institutional Profile 2015”). In 1997, the New Jersey Commission on Higher Education granted Kean university status (“Kean University Institutional Profile 2015”).

4.2.2 Institutional Leader

Dawood Farahi, Ph.D., was named President of Kean University by the university's Board of Trustees in 2003. Prior to his appointment as President of Kean University, Farahi had been a member of the faculty for 20 years, "working his way up from professor to head of the public administration department" (Heyboer & Sherman, 2013). Farahi emigrated from Afghanistan to the United States and earned a Ph.D. from the University of Kansas, where he was a Fulbright Scholar ("President's Office, About," n.d.).

Farahi's time as President of Kean University has been marked by a series of controversies, including conflicts with faculty and students, accusations of frivolous spending, and charges of falsifying his academic credentials (Alaya, 2008; Heyboer & Sherman, 2013). The controversies also include negative actions by external accrediting and regulatory bodies. In 2012, the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), a member-led organization representing 1,121 colleges and universities working together to determine and enforce rules and policies surrounding college sports ("What is the NCAA?," n.d.) placed all 13 of the university's NCAA Division III athletic teams on probation for lack of institutional control and failure to monitor athletic programs, which had allowed "impermissible financial aid and extra benefits for its student-athletes," ("NCAA places Kean on probation," 2012).

On four occasions, between June of 2011 and March of 2012, Kean University received written warnings from the Middle States Commission on Higher Education that "its accreditation may be in jeopardy because of insufficient evidence that the institution is currently in compliance" with standards relating to Institutional Assessment and Assessment of Student Learning; on June 28, 2012, Kean University was placed on probation for lack of compliance

with multiple standards, including Integrity, Institutional Assessment, General Education, and Assessment of Student Learning (“Middle States Action and Public Disclosure Statement,” 2012). Kean University was eventually reaccredited later in 2012 (Heyboer, 2012).

President Farahi has been described as “a dictator....a tyrant...and New Jersey’s most controversial college President” (Alaya, 2008). Despite the negative press, President Farahi’s biography points to his successes at Kean University, including hiring more than 150 faculty members, creating the Center for Academic Success, establishing the New Jersey Center for Science, Technology and Mathematics which provides full scholarships to students interested in STEM careers, and securing approval for the University’s first ever doctoral program (“President’s Office, About,” n.d.).

4.2.3 Scope of organizational change

Over the course of 2009 and 2010, Kean University embarked on a plan to consolidate academic departments and, later, to eliminate the role of department chairs and replace them with non-faculty, non-union executive directors.

4.2.4 Documents

The majority of documents identified and retrieved relating to Kean University were found on web sites beyond the University’s control, such as the minutes of meetings of the collective bargaining unit representing Kean faculty, external media coverage, and two professional associations (Middle States Commission on Higher Education and the American Association of University Professors). Several documents were available on the University’s web site relating to

its strategic planning process; however, on multiple occasions hyperlinks purportedly leading to additional information were nonfunctional. Kean University did not respond to requests for documents that otherwise appeared to have been once available on the web site---, in particular, a document identified in Kean University's 2011 Middle States Self Study Report as Appendix F, Academic Affairs Restructuring Document. The Self Study Report was available online, but the hyperlink to Appendix F resulted in the message, "Not Found. The requested URL /~acadaff/middlestates.shtm was not found on this server."

4.2.5 RQ#1: In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?

Very little institutional documentation of Kean's strategic plans and resultant academic restructuring are available for public consumption: the University's web site lacks much of the expected documentation relating to substantive organizational change—strategic plans and minutes of the institution's Board of Trustees meetings during the time of restructuring are not available. In addition, the institution was nonresponsive to requests for documents that appeared to have been publicly available at one time. For these reasons, and in an effort to responsibly frame a response to the first research question, an excerpt from Kean University's Institutional Profile for 2009-2010 is provided as a stand-in for a strategic plan or other document that may have laid out the president's vision for the specific actions:

Kean University continues to respond to the major demographic and social changes in the New Jersey metropolitan area. With one of the most multicultural student populations in the state, exceptional academic support programs have been developed that respond to the requirements of an increasingly diverse

undergraduate and graduate student population. Kean University is positioning itself to meet the changing educational and developmental needs of the future. We remain committed to a mission that provides access, opportunity and affordability to New Jersey's students and citizens. Kean University is proud of its tradition of service to the community and commitment to scholarship and teaching. We will continue to build on this distinguished history as we plan for the future ("Kean University Institutional Profile 2009-2010, p. i).

The Institutional Profile statement reinforces Kean's role in serving a diverse, multicultural body of students and, in mentioning academic support programs, suggests to the reader that this is an institution functioning on the perilous front lines of public higher education where the fight is to keep tuition affordable. It flows from this reading that addressing fiscal concerns would top the (few) official statements surrounding the restructuring at Kean University. It fell to the researcher to rely primarily on external media reports and the university's student newspaper to represent some semblance of the institution's case for restructuring. As best as can be determined, in 2009, Kean University began considering a plan to merge academic departments and to replace department chairs with managers. In May of 2009, *Inside Higher Ed* reported that

A plan being floated at Kean University of New Jersey would merge many existing departments into larger units and replace chairs with "managers" -- who would be appointed by administrators and would not hold faculty rank or tenure...

Like many public colleges and universities, Kean faces both a deficit and a lack of certainty over how large the shortfall is, although millions will need to be cut somewhere. *Administrators say that they are still developing plans, and doing so*

in conjunction with faculty and student groups, and that it is "premature" to discuss specifics (Jaschik, 2009, emphasis added).

In September of 2009, Kean University's Student Newspaper, *The Tower*, reported that the restructuring had been approved by the Board of Trustees:

The Kean University administration has reorganized several academic departments and opened four new schools within the college this semester. Proposed by the administration and approved by the board of trustees in June, most of the reorganization has already taken effect and is now mostly complete. Besides creating the four new schools, the plan also included the integration of the department of Philosophy and the department of Foreign Languages into several of the University's larger departments...the Media & Film Studies department has been moved from the School of Visual & Performing Arts, and reunited with the Communication department in the School of Humanities & Social Sciences (Kean reorganization underway, 2009, p.1 & 4).

The student newspaper article was helpful in providing some details of the academic changes, and also in being the only source to report a rationale for the changes. Mark Lender, identified as interim Vice President for Academic Affairs, was the only administrator identified in conjunction with official comments about the restructuring. Quoted in the student newspaper, Lender echoed the financial concerns alluded to in the *Inside Higher Ed* article, but tempered it with a call to make the university stronger, perhaps thrown in for good measure:

'It's about the budget, but that's not what it's all about,' said Dr. Lender [Interim V.P. for Academic Affairs]. The reorganization is meant to get the university 'ahead of the curve' by focusing on its strengths while also creating opportunities

for the university to gain more funding, both from the public and private sector.

‘We have to do the most we can on scarce resources...When times are tough, you’ve got to think ahead. It’s what we build when times are tough that allow us to do more when times are better (“Kean reorganization underway,” 2009, p. 1 & 4).

In that same issue of the student newspaper was found one of only a handful of excerpts directly attributable to President Farahi about the restructuring. The student newspaper, in reporting on President Farahi’s “welcome back” address, acknowledged that the changes were “minimally publicized”:

‘[Kean] will not go backwards,’ said Dr. Farahi early in his opening remarks, asserting that most students, staff, and faculty are proud to be a part of what many consider to be a transforming Kean University, a motif which would be repeated throughout the speech’s hour long duration. Dr. Farahi did not mention specifically which policies the University would not go back on, but the remarks come after an academic year in which the administration incorporated a controversial schedule change and *minimally publicized departmental reorganization* (“Kean pride...., 2009, p. 4).

4.2.5.1 Conclusions to RQ #1

Several significant challenges presented by the absence of institutional documentation make it difficult to tease out the institutional case for restructuring. There is nothing available (beyond Lender’s platitude of “getting ahead of the curve”) that can responsibly be claimed as an institutional representation of the basis for the restructuring that took place in 2009. Because the

second phase (2010) involved a substantial assault upon the academic culture and structure of the institution, it generated more documentation from the institution's leaders, albeit of a defensive stance made through external media; that documentation is covered in the next section. Given the paucity of public statements and institutional proclamations, Kean University may prove to be an instance of actions having spoken louder than words.

4.2.6 RQ#2: How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?

The 2009 restructuring at Kean University created four new schools, integrated the department of Philosophy and the department of Foreign Languages into several of the University's larger departments, relocated the Media & Film Studies department moved from the School of Visual & Performing Arts and into the Communication department in the School of Humanities & Social Sciences. Other transitions were anticipated for 2010 involving the department of Social Work and the department of Communication Sciences and Educational Services. But the most significant alteration to academic structure was yet to come: The minutes of the April 8, 2010 meeting of the Kean Federation of Teachers report that faculty were hearing rumors about more restructuring:

It's rumored that the Administration's response to the upcoming year's fiscal crisis is to plan and create super departments, super chairs, and create a new layer of management. VP M. Lender stated that nothing has been committed to in writing in regards to this plan ("Kean Federation of Teachers General Membership Meeting...April 2010," p. 2)

Six weeks later, in May of 2010, word of this reorganization started to take shape when it was reported by several media outlets. As was the case with the 2009 restructuring, it fell to the researcher to rely upon these reports to identify and portray the institution's attitudes towards academic culture and structure. The 2010 actions on departments—such as whether and which ones would be split up or merged—were never revealed as attributed to President Farahi; instead, when Farahi is quoted about the changes, it appears that platitudes won out over specificity:

It will take time to determine exactly how the current academic departments will be split up and merged. But in the end, *the change will strengthen the university*, the president said. 'All of these things are done for the benefit of the students,' Farahi said (Heyboer, 2010, emphasis added).

And:

Kean University will *eliminate nearly all academic departments* and overhaul the structure of the state's third-largest public university, despite objections from its faculty union, school officials said today. The restructuring— which university administrators say will save nearly \$2 million — will remove 38 department chairs from their posts and *return them to the classroom*. Under the plan, they will be replaced with executive directors and program coordinators who will manage 18 newly-consolidated schools on the Union Township campus ("Kean University says restructuring plan will eliminate department chairs...", May 27, 2010, emphasis added).

President Farahi's voice was rarely directly identified in documents or other sources discussing the restructuring. However, when he did venture a statement on the subject, it was brief and unequivocal:

'The system we have in place has been in place 30 years and hasn't worked,' Kean President Dawood Farahi said... School officials sped up the restructuring plan to help get Kean out of the red. *'That will save me about 2 million bucks,'* Farahi said. *'Plus it will put more faculty in the classroom,'* (Heyboer, 2010, emphasis added).

It cannot be stated with any degree of certainty whether “the system” impugned by Dr. Farahi is the university system *writ large* or that aspect of academic structure that puts faculty in places other than the classroom or some other “system” at Kean. However, an earlier statement attributed to an administrator connected with Kean University played down the cataclysmic change in academic leadership as simple shifts in personnel to maximize contributions and budget savings:

'We're not losing people,' Dr. Lender said. *'We're putting them where their skills can contribute.'* The chairs of dissolved departments have gone back to full time teaching, instructing four classes instead of two. According to Dr. Lender, this saves money because the University does not have to hire as many additional professors' (“Kean University reorganization underway,” 2009, p. 4)

One reading of Lender's statement—that people are being moved to “where their skills can contribute,” could lead to an interpretation that department chairs are not contributing in the existing environment. Statements attributed to unnamed “Kean administrators” positioned the motivations of faculty opposing the restructuring as being selfish in their desire to maintain a system of benefits not available to the vast majority of the state's residents (Jashik, 2009, p. 2):

Kean administrators declined to answer questions in a telephone conversation and agreed to respond only via e-mail. While asked specifically about the comparison

of Montclair and Kean administrative staffs, the response from a spokesman did not address the issue. *The statement said that it was "time to set aside greed and self-interest to develop a long-term solution to ensure that Kean continues to remain competitive, true to its mission and to attract students."* The statement did not specifically address the idea of eliminating chair positions, and the spokesman did not respond to a request for clarification. But the statement suggested that the course release time that chairs receive (which is common in higher education) is inappropriate. 'The majority of our faculty go above and beyond serving our students in their teaching and research,' the statement said. 'The small and vocal group leading the protest today wants to *preserve a system that rewards part-time work with full-time pay*. Most New Jerseyans lack such job security and know first-hand about the dangers of losing jobs and making payments on their homes, cars, etc. Most would not consider two or three days a week at 17 hours full-time employment. The university cannot afford to operate like that. No business can."

And:

Hudik [a university spokesperson] said the rally represented a small, vocal minority of the campus community, which has dogged the president for more than a year with vociferous criticism. Much of the rancor, he said, comes from *safely tenured professors resisting the end of short work weeks out of 'greed and self-interest*. They want to maintain a system that's broken...our students and taxpayers deserve accountability and performance,' (Jashik, 2009, p. 2).

With those statements, the narrative of academic culture and structure crafted by Kean University became one of elites seeking to retain a prized privilege, one not enjoyed by the

hardworking taxpayers of New Jersey. However, in late 2010, in the wake of the changes to the academic structure at Kean University, an official statement finally emerged in the form of a Letter to the Editor by Dr. Jeff Toney, Dean of the College of Natural, Applied and Health Sciences. Dr. Toney positioned the academic changes as a natural conclusion to thoughtful deliberations about adapting to a changing environment, and in consideration of what's best for students:

In the midst of a major economic downturn, colleges and universities can choose very different paths. One approach is to cut back, retreat, and rely on the status quo in the hope that things will get better. The other path is to assess operations campuswide and reconsider how we teach students from the ground up. Yes, the second path requires doing more with less... As part of an academic-reorganization plan at Kean University, *we considered the question of whether or not traditional academic departments focusing on a single discipline was in the best interest of student learning. Indeed, redefining or eliminating departments is being considered on campuses nationwide.* Instead of cutting back and offering fewer opportunities for our students, our academic reorganization includes new schools that offer our students more choices and the opportunity to study subjects across disciplines. The benefit of such an approach can be far more than operational cost savings... *A healthy academic unit should always adapt to changing environments; breaking down single-discipline silos to nurture cross-disciplinary learning can be viewed as one example of punctuated evolution* (Toney, 2010, n.p., emphasis added).

With the statement, Toney (who in 2011 was named Provost and Vice President for Academic Affairs at Kean) invoked awareness that academic changes are on the agendas of other colleges and universities. In doing so, Toney deflected the image of Kean University's restructuring as an unusual occurrence of academic sabotage and instead positioned the institution's strategic changes as a harbinger of innovations to come at other institutions. Toney's statement also takes gentle aim at critics of the changes by framing the change in the context of what "healthy" academic units do to adapt and improve.

4.2.6.1 Conclusions to RQ #2

There statements emanating from Kean University include some pointedly negative perceptions of academic structure and culture. The actions taken—eliminating department chairs—suggested a belief that there was very little "added value" to the institution in having that role. One might infer, based on the level of vitriol employed by the one institutional spokesman, that there is a pervasive disdain for "some" faculty—at least those who are "greedy" and want to maintain a system from which they derive unfair and unsustainable benefits. Toney's statement offered an affirmative (if not commonplace) rationale for the changes as adaptive and responsive to student needs.

4.2.7 RQ#3: What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?

Constituent perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the proposed restructuring at Kean University were found primarily on external sites, that is, beyond the control of the university.

Minutes of meetings of the collective bargaining unit representing Kean faculty, external media reports, and social media portrayed constituent voices as predominantly opposed to the restructuring. Correspondence from the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) and the Middle States support the impression that a high degree of rancor accompanied the academic restructuring at Kean—before, during, and after.

4.2.7.1 Erosion of shared governance

Opposition voiced on the grounds that the actions were deleterious to faculty and the tenets of shared governance appeared in the communications of the President Castiglione of the Kean Federation of Teachers (KFT) and from the American Association of University Professors (AAUP):

President Castiglione articulated the threat to faculty posed by the restructuring:

‘Because the plan would leave departments managed by people who do not come from the faculty ranks, *professors will lose any advocacy they get from department chairs,*’ (Jashik, 2009, emphasis added).

Castiglione’s position on the erosion of faculty governance was supported by a lengthy letter from the AAUP to President Farahi:

The proposal, which we have seen, involves the elimination and/or consolidation of existing departments and programs, their regrouping in new configurations of ‘schools,’ and the elimination of virtually all of the university’s department chairs and their replacement with school executive directors and program coordinators. In addition to calling into question the academic and educational soundness of the proposed reorganization, faculty members have also challenged the

administration's stated rationale. In addition, they have questioned the timing of the proposal, issued at the very close of the academic year, 'thereby precluding,' as one of them has written, 'meaningful consultation with affected faculty and others' ("Letter from B. Robert Kreiser to President Farahi....," 2010).

No documentation was found to indicate how (or if) the University responded to the letter from the AAUP.

4.2.7.2 Retaliation

Opposition to Farahi's restructurings also arose from perceptions that decisions were made in an arbitrary and capricious fashion and were prompted by a desire to retaliate against faculty. Blogs and media reports portrayed the situation at Kean as a battlefield, where retaliatory attacks were common, and where the academic landscape lay in ruin:

Now, this [referring to abolishing departments] is all just at Kean, not at any of the other seven institutions in our sector of NJ public higher ed. So, although my Dept [sic] is one of several abolished a year ago, this is not part of any larger, systemwide plan...Indeed, the decision to abolish five Depts [sic] a year ago *apparently sprang from retaliatory motives against particular faculty members in the targeted Depts* [sic], ("Leiter Reports a Philosophy Blog," 2010, n.p., emphasis added).

And:

So the decision to abolish the Dept [sic] of Philosophy and Religion at Kean seems to be a matter of *punishing faculty who have dared criticize this President* publicly, just as the decision to abolish the Social Work program was a matter of

punishing students who dared circulate a petition. And so forth in the case of the three other abolished Depts. [sic], (“Leiter reports....,” 2010, n.p., emphasis added).

And:

The source of attack comes from a narrowminded [sic] Administration which claims we deliver ‘world class education.’ These technocrats diligently destroy the department of philosophy using dubious accounting methods which present a fabricated picture of low enrollments and majors (“Leiter Reports A philosophy blog...”, n.d.).

And, in the media, the battlefield imagery continued:

‘The university has become a battlefield, [where administrators] do as they see fit, when they see fit without any academic justification,’ said Bryan Lees, a chemistry professor (Stripling, 2010, n.p.)

Faculty voices identified in the media and blogs claimed that the Farahi Administration had fabricated a financial crisis—or caused one on its own—and was using the faculty as the scapegoat:

Despite the restored finances, the university decimated several strong, popular and viable programs, eliminating and combining several others, all without documenting any savings whatsoever...The Council of Concerned Faculty rejects the Farahi Administration’s body of lies, the personal vendetta, and personal lack of integrity that has led to dictatorship, not leadership (“Concerned Kean University Faculty, n.d., n.p.).

Just as the University's spokesman tried to frame this as an issue for taxpayers, so too did the Kean faculty:

The university administration has consistently sought public opinion against the faculty as a way of diverting attention to the real issues of fiscal abuse. That other state universities have managed to operate without the same punitive policies toward students and faculty, should prompt taxpayers to ask: Where is the money going at Kean University? ("Concerned Kean University Faculty, n.d., n.p.).

The "Concerned Kean" faculty blog continued to read like a revolutionary manifesto, calling concerned citizens to action, to demand truth and justice, and to return academic affairs to its rightful place in university shared governance:

"On Thursday, April 30, 2009, V.P. for Finance, Philip Connelly and Interim V.P. for Academic Affairs, Mark Lender, distributed a message defending the actions taken by President Dawood Farahi in his unilateral attempt to dismantle the academic affairs of this state university. They reiterated the same fallacious arguments that the answer to a projected budget deficit is to reorganize academic affairs. They lay out no plan and no financial savings associated with the action. The Council of Concerned Faculty and the Kean Federation of Teachers is determined to bring the truth to students and the public. They ask you to demand that an impartial outside agency be brought in to determine the truth about the financial situation at Kean University. Rather than reorganizing academic affairs, the entity least responsible for the fiscal mess, they suggest instead, a reorganization of the administration whose failed policies have singled out Kean

University as the only state university to be in serious trouble (“Concerned Kean University Faculty,” n.d., n.p.).

4.2.7.3 Conclusions to RQ #3

The communications of constituent groups associated with Kean University reveal a deep and longstanding acrimonious relationship with the institution’s president. The ‘bad blood’ that existed prior to the restructuring is deeply intertwined with arguments against the proposed academic restructuring. It is stressful to read the accounts of this “battle,” and one wonders how an institution survives with such a level of animosity and hostility. One also wonders if the faculty feel particularly betrayed, since their leader (Farahi) came from their own faculty ranks.

4.3 TEMPLE

4.3.1 Institutional Data

Temple University is a public, doctoral-granting university located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. It is classified as “highest research activity” by The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. For fall, 2014, Temple University reported a total student enrollment of 36,153 matriculated students comprised of 27,642 undergraduate students, 3,409 masters level students, 3,466 doctoral/professional level students, and 1,636 doctoral scholarship and research level fellows (“Fact Book 2014-2015,” p. 30). Temple employed 6,283 full-time and 1,993 part-time employees, and 2,089 full-time and 1,599 part-time faculty (“Fact Book 2014-2015,” p. 73). Temple University is governed by a Board of Trustees comprised of 36

voting members, 24 of whom are elected and 12 of whom are appointed by officials of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (“Board of Trustees,” n.d., n.p.).

What would eventually become Temple University began in 1884, when Russell H. Conwell, a well-known Philadelphia minister, began to teach classes for working people in the local community. In 1888 Conwell received a charter of incorporation as The Temple College and in 1892, the College graduated its first class; 18 students, including four women, were awarded the bachelor of oratory (“Russell H. Conwell,” n.d., n.p.). In 1907, Temple incorporated as a university and in 1908, the Pennsylvania College and University Council listed Temple as one of the state’s higher-education institutions. In 1965, Temple University became a state-related university, an arrangement that distinguishes it from private schools and those that are owned or operated wholly by a government. Temple University receives an annual appropriation from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and, in return, provides discounted tuition for Pennsylvania residents (“SVP highlights importance...,” 2010). Temple University’s approved operating budget for 2015-2016 was reported as \$1.3 billion (“Temple University Proposed Budget 2015-2016”).

4.3.2 Institutional Leader(s)

Richard Englert was named acting president of Temple University by the University’s Board of Trustees, effective July 1, 2012 (“Richard M. Englert to serve...,” 2012). At the time of his appointment, Englert had more than 36 years of service to Temple University in numerous positions, including vice president for administration, associate dean and dean of the College of Education, deputy provost and dean of the University College, and chief of staff to the president; and, in acting capacity, Englert had also served as dean of the graduate school, CEO of the

School of Podiatric Medicine, director of athletics and dean of the former College of Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance. Englert received a bachelor's degree from St. John's College in California, a master's degree from Pepperdine University, and a doctoral degree in educational administration from the University of California, Los Angeles.

Englert was named acting president of Temple University upon the departure of its president, Ann Hart, who had led the university for six years. Englert's stint as acting president concluded after six months, when the current president, Neil Theobald, took office on January 1, 2013. Englert was then appointed a chancellor (an honorary position) by the University's Board of Trustees and, following a year-long sabbatical, returned to teaching in the College of Education ("Englert appointed a chancellor...", 2012).

4.3.3 Scope of organizational change

In June of 2012, Temple University's Board of Trustees approved the consolidation of departments in the College of Education, Boyer College of Music and Dance and School of Communications and Theater. Other departmental changes had been proposed but were not acted upon by the Board of Trustees.

4.3.4 Documents

The range of documents identified and retrieved relating to Temple University were readily accessible through the University's web site and through open sources such as articles in the local media. The design and maintenance of the University's web site made it easy to locate and retrieve a number of documents associated with its strategic planning processes. Similarly, the

University's web site made available minutes of Faculty Senate meetings, Board of Trustees meetings, and other internal documents which provided important details related to the research questions. Of particular value to this study was that former provost and president, Richard Englert, personally responded to the request for a copy of the document referenced as "Provost's White Paper on Restructuring," and included with his response an additional document, "Proposal on the Arts."

4.3.5 RQ#1: In the prelude to academic reorganization, how do higher education leaders and their agents communicate the case for substantive organizational action?

4.3.5.1 Responsive and Aspirational

Provost Englert's "White Paper on Restructuring the Provost's Portfolio" was his platform for restructuring. In the academic tradition of a research paper, Englert's document covered the concept of restructuring, the rationale for restructuring (including citations from the literature), restructuring guiding principles, goals to be accomplished, an acknowledgement of shared governance processes in restructuring, a proposed timeline for restructuring, and a series of options for achieving the multitude of aspirational goals articulated within the document.

The document read like a strategic plan, with its emphasis on aspirational goals and benchmarking. The decision to label it as a "White Paper" associated it as an authoritative source on a complex subject. The document was notable for having cited several scholarly works which supported the Provost's truth claims. Provost Englert presented the context for organizational change as a series of challenges:

...a volatile national economy, decreases in federal support for student financial aid, pressures for the Commonwealth to decrease its overall spending and a re-

definition of the value of a college of education and the nature of the public university are likely to continue in the years ahead and to constitute challenges to the traditional ways we operate as a university. In addition, population demographics indicate that Temple will be competing for a potential student base that at best will be leveling off and at worst declining in this geographic region (Englert, White Paper, p. 2).

Central to the case for restructuring was the call for prudence in action, fidelity to mission, and stewardship for the future:

In the face of these challenges and questions, to ensure fidelity to our academic mission and to reposition the university to take advantage of new opportunities, it is prudent to address issues of restructuring, especially prior to making commitments to bringing in new deans. We need to ask ourselves how we can best reposition the University for the next decade or so (“White Paper, p. 2).

Financial concerns were identified as among the motives for organizational action—but not only those fiscal pressures faced by the institution: Englert made a point of identifying the preservation of students’ access to higher education as an essential part of its mission:

In light of declining state support and Temple’s changing competitive environment, our mission is clear: We must do all we can to keep tuition low, continue to focus on academic excellence and improve the Temple experience for all students (“Temple News Provost forwards white paper...,” 2012)

4.3.5.2 Efficiency through streamlining

Closely aligned with financial prudence, the concept of streamlining figured prominently in the Provost's discussions of restructuring: "When we can streamline operations, we can save costs and we can keep tuition down at reasonable levels, so there are many things that are motivating us," ("Provost outlines potential restructurings...", 2012, n.p.). The message of streamlining was also reinforced in the coverage provided by the university's news service: "Prompted by the latest financial squeeze from Harrisburg and a desire to streamline various academic processes around the university, the provost's office has released the White Paper on Restructuring..." ("Provost outlines possible academic restructuring," 2012). And when the Board approved the changes, the institution's vice president for communications employed the same narrative, stating that the restructuring was "a more streamlined approach" ("Board approves..."). Unlike his boss, though, the vice president for communications was much more succinct regarding the financial aspect of the reorganization: "We are looking to reduce costs where we can," Betzner said ("Board approves realignment...", 2012).

4.3.5.3 Conclusions to RQ #1

Provost Englert made a cogent case for restructuring in his "White Paper." While fiscal pressures were not omnipresent, the document infers that streamlining is an important step in the stewardship of financial resources. The changes proposed by Englert are what Horn & Jerome (1996) might refer to the "highly visible changes" of an organizational structure—altering the college structure. The restructuring is positioned as shepherding the institution through a transitional time in higher education with the intent to emerge stronger for the future and to remain as an affordable option for future students.

4.3.6 RQ#2: How and where is academic culture and structure positioned in the communications of higher education leaders and their agents in the context of academic reorganization?

4.3.6.1 Interdisciplinary collaboration

Englert claimed that reorganization will “increase academic units’ levels of collaboration and work across disciplinary, departmental and school/college structures in achieving common goals,” (Englert, 2011, p. 4). The quest for interdisciplinarity was spelled out in great detail in a second document prepared and disseminated by Englert (2012) which discussed, in detail, the advantages—interdisciplinary and otherwise—of combining the institution’s arts programs. The document outlined Englert’s proposal and rationale for creating a Center for the Arts comprised of the Boyer College of Music and Dance, the Tyler School of Art and the Division of Film, Media Arts and Theater. The proposal frames the restructuring of the arts as both an opportunistic and protective move:

Tyler and Boyer separately are relatively small units within the University. This makes them individually more vulnerable to competition for resources and generally for attention within the University. In addition, separation of the arts into individual units makes it more likely that units would compete with each other for scarce resources and other matters of import, thereby limiting their influence. Creating the Center would allow for both a larger critical mass and a coordinated advocacy on behalf of the arts within the University, thus creating a synergy of influence that will benefit all the arts both collectively and individually (Englert, 2012, p. 3).

Englert argues that having a single dean—as opposed to the existing structure of one dean for Tyler and one for Boyer (although in fact due to vacancies, there was in practice one dean serving in both capacities)—the Center would be able to:

...pool resources more strategically and minimize duplication of administrative services. Since arts by their very nature are more expenditure intensive in terms of their academic programs and creative activities, savings in administrative costs can contribute to making the arts more efficient without eroding the academic core (Englert, 2012, p. 3).

In responding to criticisms of the proposal, Englert strikes upon an issue related to disciplinary specialization and questions of appropriate leadership:

...some have suggested that it is essential that there be a separate dean for the Tyler School and the Boyer College—one that comes from the specific discipline involved (e.g., visual arts for Tyler). The argument is that only someone who comes from the particular discipline can adequately represent that discipline in various venues in the discipline. I did not find this argument persuasive. Within Tyler, there are various specialties, and each one cannot have a dean. For example, should a dean come from architecture or painting or fibers and material studies or art history, etc. *Every school and college in every university faces the same issue of which discipline a dean should come from. The fact is that the best deans are the ones who understand, support and represent a variety of disciplines.* The arts will continue to flourish not because the dean is from a particular discipline but because we have great faculty and students, as well as a dean who is able to understand and support them, provide strong academic

leadership and sound management and inspire those within the University and outside of it to regard Temple an arts leader and destination (Englert, 2012, p , emphasis added).

Englert's argument that a dean need not necessarily come from the discipline of the department that she leads brings to mind Plater's (2006) observation that every administrator at all levels is defined by her or his ability to manage relationships.

4.3.6.2 Restructuring as a common practice

Consistent with the larger organizational message of seeking to provide the best value in public higher education and to be both efficient and effective, Englert also positioned academic restructuring as a common practice among universities:

It is common practice for universities to examine periodically their structures and processes to determine whether they can better position themselves for the future, to ensure strong support for their academic programs and to be responsive to changing fields and societal needs. In fields that are rapidly changing, traditional or current structures may or may not be appropriate for the years ahead. What structures will best foster academic excellence? How do Temple's structures compare with those of peer and aspirant institutions? These and other considerations associated with our core mission will need to drive our discussions (Englert, 2011, p. 2, emphasis added).

Englert's case for change for the arts programs employs the same theme of benchmarking: "Across the nation there are numerous instances of the arts being included in a comprehensive college or similar unit, and some of these are among the finest institutions with

top reputations” (Englert, 2012). Englert’s collaborative aspirations are also evident in his proposal for the Center for the Arts:

As the arts work together under the aegis of the new Center, there will be increased opportunities for greater creative and intellectual dialogue and collaboration. The Center will provide a more systematic and coordinated showcasing of the arts, including the works of individual faculty members, within the University and externally to the arts world and the broader society (Englert, 2012, emphasis added).

4.3.6.3 Conclusions to RQ #2

Englert’s cogent argument for changing the academic structure at Temple rests upon the pillars of institutional aspirations well-suited for Temple and of reasoning that it is common for other institutions to periodically evaluate their academic structure. Tying those themes together can be perceived as demonstrating that the institution is doing what is best for it while being mindful of the “marketplace” and how other institutions demonstrate flexibility and agility in responding to new challenges and opportunities. The question of academic culture is addressed in the communications concerning the appointment of a dean from “outside” the discipline that he or she is chosen to lead.

4.3.7 RQ#3: What do the communications of constituent groups reveal about their perceptions, responses, and rebuttals to the claims of higher education leaders for academic reorganization?

4.3.7.1 Support for realignment

Provost Englert's proposal to restructure the Arts seemingly met with collegial support—including those directly affected by the restructuring of the arts and the other programs transitioning into the Tyler School of Art—and who would be functioning in a much more discipline-diverse structure:

“This unification offers many new opportunities for collaborations. There is a high level of excitement for refreshing research connections and pursuing new ones,” said Hester Stinnett, Interim Dean for the Tyler School of Art (“SED departments become part of Tyler's division...,” n.d., n.p.).

The support for the restructuring involving the Tyler School of Art suggested a strong belief among some affected faculty that resources would be shared to a much greater advantage. Additionally, the restructuring was perceived as benefiting students by preparing them for the multidisciplinary environments they will encounter as practitioners:

‘Realigning the disciplines into one cohesive unit mirrors what students will experience in the working world,’ said Kate Wingert-Playdon, Associate Dean for the Division of Architecture and Environmental Design. ‘For our students, whether they are part of an architectural or planning firm, there is going to be strong collaboration between architects, engineers, landscape architects, planners, horticulturists, designers, fine arts professionals. It educates our students in the

way the professional field works today — this type of cross-disciplinary cooperation will be part of their lives every day,’ (SED departments become part of Tyler’s division...,” n.d., n.p.).

Another faculty voice acknowledged the multidisciplinary advantages of the realignment within the arts:

Aligning the programs comes quite naturally, according to Dr. Lynn Mandarano, chair of the Department of Community and Regional Planning, ‘because planning, landscape architecture and architecture are all terminal degrees that focus on increasing students’ understanding of how design and policy impact the sustainability of built and natural environments and communities’ (SED departments become part of Tyler’s division...,” n.d., n.p.).

4.3.7.2 Opposition

Faculty in the College of Education voiced opposition to the proposal to create a school of education, downgraded from the College of Education. Among the voices was one that generated wistful reflections of how the college had weathered difficult times and questioned why, that for a college which had survived those challenges, was it deemed necessary to lower the status of the college:

It may mean little to the larger world, but words do matter and I believe that here at Temple the change will signify a *diminished stature* and that will have ramifications not only for us but for our students...I wonder how it is that our status as a college needs to end now (“My response to the provost’s proposal...,” n.d., n.p.).

The Temple Faculty Senate took up the matter of the Provost's White paper. Their discussions and concerns are reflected in the minutes of their meetings and in an open letter to the faculty from Senate President Paul LaFollette:

The process [of working with the provost on his proposals] to this point has been slow, largely because the faculty members involved want to be sure that they understand the effects, intended and unintended, beneficial and costly, that such restructuring may bring about' ('A Message from Paul LaFollette," 2011, n.p.).

LaFollette's statement suggested that relations between administration and faculty were sufficiently harmonious to allow dialogue and discussion on the subject of the provost's proposals.

4.3.7.3 Conclusions to RQ #3

Temple's constituent voices were largely respectful, thoughtful, and introspective concerning the restructuring proposals. Faculty in the arts appeared to be fully behind the proposal specific to those programs, although—in the matter of the wider restructuring—the faculty voted against the proposal. It was noted that faculty dissent was on the grounds of an absence of cost/benefit analysis, suggesting that the faculty were open to considering the proposal but that they wanted more information upon which to base a decision.

5.0 FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of how academic culture and structure are positioned within the communications associated with the policy process of academic reorganization. The growing practice of academic reorganization at colleges and universities in the United States often involves the dismantling of traditional academic departments, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars within disciplines, and the resultant reduction in faculty serving as department chairs.

In this chapter I will briefly review Kingdon's multiple stream model and discuss how I worked through the process of linking Kingdon's model with the findings from the content analysis. I will then present and discuss of findings in three sections, organized around major themes: (1) academic culture and structure; (2) the corporatization of the university; and (3) the open window. A summary of findings from the content analysis may be found in Table 7.

5.1.1 Multiple stream model

The theoretical framework for this qualitative research study was the multiple stream model of policymaking which likens problems, policies, and politics to streams flowing around and through the policy making process (Kingdon, 2003). "Policy windows" represent opportunities to raise awareness of a particular problem or push a policy proposal, opportunities that exist for

short periods of time. These windows of opportunity arise when the separate streams—problems, policies, and politics—come together (Kingdon, 2003, p. 166). In the aggregate, these streams run fast or slow and meander in different directions; some may dry up and others may converge.

Table 7 Content analysis summary of findings

<i>Clemson</i>	<i>Kean</i>	<i>Temple</i>
Characteristics of Restructuring		
<i>Move liberal arts into two new colleges—create two new colleges</i>	<i>Eliminate 38 departments and replace chairs with executive directors</i>	<i>Consolidate several departments and programs; merge arts programs</i>
RQ1 Leaders: Case for Change		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aspire to national prominence Think efficiency not budget 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Get ahead of the curve Generate more revenue 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Respond to challenges Reposition the university Efficiency; fidelity to mission
RQ2 Leaders: Academic Culture and Structure		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Key enabler – national prominence Focus on research, teaching Align rewards with goals Select deans from the discipline they lead Change in culture could achieve goals without structural changes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Fix a broken system Put more faculty in classroom Strengthen the university Periodic review is good practice Greedy faculty are harmful 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Foster collaboration Strengthen smaller units/pool resources Select deans for skills, not disciplinary origin Periodic review is good practice
RQ3 Constituent Voices		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Creates new barriers Pride in current distinctiveness Address culture, not structure, to achieve goals Vulnerability Loss of power 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Erodes shared governance Decreases faculty advocacy Retaliatory in nature Distrustful of administration Blames faculty for administration's negligence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New opportunities for collaboration; better prepares students (those <i>for</i> changes in the Arts) Diminishes stature (those <i>against</i> changes in the College of Education) Unsupportable in the absence of cost/benefit analysis (faculty senate resolution)

The discussion of the findings from communications associated with academic restructurings reinforces the itinerant nature of the policy process. The problem streams to which this study related were expected to be captured in research question 1, *how leaders of higher education institutions framed the case for change*. The study sought, through content analysis, to identify how situations came to be described as problems. Participants in this stage, i.e., higher education leaders, are preoccupied with demonstrating that there is a problem to which their solution can be applied (Kingdon, 2006). The policy and political streams to which this study related were expected to be captured in research question 2, *how academic culture and structure were positioned within the proposals for change*, and in research question 3, *how constituents responded to or rebutted policy proposals*. The study sought to reflect how the policy stream of favored proposals (those perpetuated by the institutional leaders) were batted around, negotiated, altered, or embraced by constituents.

However, in attempting to map examples from the content analysis to distinct stages in the policy process model, I realized that doing so would be misleading and in fact would disregard the fluid nature of the policy process. For that reason, I have eschewed what would otherwise be an oversimplification of the policy model, in favor of a discussion of the findings, thematically, with embedded references to the policy process. I believe this approach better serves the intent of the research, that is, an exploration of issues associated with academic culture and structure in the context of restructuring.

5.2 ACADEMIC CULTURE AND STRUCTURE

At the heart of all the restructuring changes was the effect on academic structure. The changes ranged from the radical—eliminating the department chair position—to more modest (in comparison)—the rearranging of departments and colleges. In the discussions of the changes, some acknowledgement of the role of academic culture emerged. This section will discuss how academic culture and structure were portrayed and discussed in the course of specific actions taken by each institution.

5.2.1 Department chair as faculty advocate

The role of department chair includes operational and scholarly responsibilities. The department chair role is often responsible for administrative tasks including resource allocation, staff supervision, student recruitment, accreditation activities and assorted internal and external reporting requirements (Edwards, 1999, p.18). Department chairs have traditionally been called upon to be the defenders of their disciplinary origins, and—by virtue of their role in faculty evaluations—to develop other faculty in his or her academic discipline (Carroll and Gmelch, 1994; Berdrow, 2010)

Among the three institutions studied, Kean University's restructuring had, by far, the greatest impact on the role of department chair. The elimination of at least 38 department chair positions and the creation of a new executive director position was the most extreme action affecting department chairs among the institutions studied. Opposition to this proposal came largely from the union representing Kean's faculty, and supported by a letter from the AAUP. In the context of the policy streams, opposition by Kean faculty appeared as an artifact of the

political environment. As I considered how and where to frame this action (eliminating department chairs) in the context of the multiple stream model, I wondered if in fact the action was reflective of a different problem perceived by President Farahi—and not the problem of needing to put more faculty in the classroom.

Bearing in mind the legacy of department chairs, and in the absence of more detailed communications, I am left to wonder if there were other indicators that led President Farahi to conclude that the department chair position needed to be eliminated in its entirety. Beyond the statements of justifying the elimination of the department chair position in favor of returning faculty to the classroom, it is also a possibility, as suggested in the literature review, that Kean University was experiencing difficulty in finding faculty willing to take on the role of department chair (De Zure et al., 2014; DeFleur et al., 2010; Aggarwal et al., 2009). I also wonder if President Farahi had acquainted himself with the study that suggested a significant number of department chair duties could be divested to non-academic staff (Hancock, 2007), or if, on the basis of his 20-plus years at Kean, knew first-hand that much of the work of department chairs could be devolved to a staff position. Leadership and organization by discipline

Academic departments have been identified as the “homes” of academic disciplines, meaning that, collectively, academic departments define what constitutes knowledge, and the organization of knowledge. The culture of an academic department is shaped, in part, by the values of the academic discipline represented. This is manifest in the epistemologic and pedagogic practices of that respective discipline and the belief that someone from “outside” the discipline cannot successfully lead it. It has followed, then, that faculty within a department, and the individual (dean, chair) who leads the department, share the same disciplinary origins.

Two divergent examples of attitudes towards disciplinary leadership were found in institutions in this study. At Clemson University, it was determined that the business school in particular, and others, needed to have their “own” deans, meaning, deans who represent the respective disciplines, in order for those schools to secure certain accreditations and to grow in research and graduate studies. In contrast, Temple University’s provost made a cogent case for how the desired leadership qualities of a dean do not necessarily have to include being of the same discipline.

5.2.2 Organizational culture and respect among the disciplines

The policy stream includes the generation and debate of policy proposals and the putting forth of alternative proposals. Organizational culture arises in the communications of higher education leaders and constituents alike, but never as the star of the conversation. Rather, it arises as constituents (and some leaders) debate and discuss how a proposed new structure, once in practice, would actually foster interdisciplinary collaboration. In that context, organizational culture begins to emerge in the policy stream as a policy alternative.

At Clemson, the Engineering and Science faculty put forth an alternative proposal, one that would incentivize collaboration rather than expecting it to occur as a result of structural changes. Their recognition of the influence of organizational culture on achieving (or preventing the achievement of) institutional goals is shared by at least two administrators cited in the study. Yet nothing appeared in the documents to suggest that Clemson was addressing, as part of its policy proposal process, obstacles attributed to organizational culture.

A recurring theme in the literature, and in the constituent voices of Clemson and Temple universities, is that faculty do not blame structure for the absence of interdisciplinary research

and collaboration; rather, they cite underlying perceptions about the relative value of different disciplines and the lack of respect given by some disciplines to others.

5.3 CORPORATIZATION OF THE UNIVERSITY

The corporatization of the university is described with the production metaphor: to produce and sell some product that is measurable, comparable, and conforms to some preconceived standard. The production metaphor abhors deviance from standard protocol and shuns the customization of the product to suit a unique circumstance. The production metaphor has at its foundation the maximization of efficiency to achieve maximum profits.

It makes sense that the three institutions discussed herein—all classified as research universities—should emphasize research activity within their respective restructurings. I have chosen to link the discussion of restructuring to enhance research activity within this section because of the emphasis on revenue generation and the application of metrics to evaluate faculty performance. Examples in which financial and operational considerations factored into the restructuring are also included within this section.

5.3.1 The rise of the metric

Clemson University clearly stated the intent to utilize benchmarking data to assess and reward scholarly productivity. Clemson's communications went so far as to specifically note that compensation strategies were to be modified to better reflect research excellence and to tie rank advancement and research resources to research performance. In the context of the multiple

stream model, Clemson's declared intent to measure faculty productivity formed part of the overall strategy for achieving national prominence. The tactic—rewarding faculty research productivity through revised compensation and promotion standards—can be viewed as a solution (policy proposal) to the question (problem) of how to raise research activity.

Further contemplation of the prominence of metrics in faculty evaluation led to the realization that (and the borrowing of a tenet of content analysis), *context matters* (or should) in the judging of faculty performance. The documents reviewed for this study did not address how or if Clemson University would take into account its distinctive features, attributes, strengths and weaknesses in benchmarking individual faculty performance against some externally promulgated data, nor how Clemson University might ensure that the comparisons are valid and that the external data is trustworthy. The reliance upon metrics suggests a movement towards the standardization and regimentation of faculty performance.

5.3.2 Financial considerations

Each higher education leader profiled in this study made reference to finances as a motivating factor in setting forth their proposals for academic restructuring, yet they positioned budget concerns in very different ways. Although Kingdon's model is premised on federal government, his observation on the special problem of budget is applicable to higher education in general and to the cases presented in this study:

A budget pinch very directly affects both bureaucrats and legislators since the programs in which they have a personal stake are affected. Budgetary considerations sometimes force items higher on the governmental agenda, acting as a promoter. At other times, budgets act as constraints, holding some items low

on (or even off) the agenda because the item would cost more than decisions makers are willing to contemplate (Kingdon, 2003, p. 105).

And

In times of severe budget constraint, inexpensive programs come to the fore...some attempt to regulate, to control the rise of costs...the second type of inexpensive program is not directly regulatory, but policy makers become convinced that it will save money...third, at a time when no large-expenditure initiatives...are possible, attention turns to initiatives that cost little, even if they would not necessarily contribute to actual cost savings (Kingdon, 2003, p. 107-108).

The distinction between budget as a constrainer or promoter is borrowed to illuminate excerpts from the findings related to the first research question of how leaders communicate the case for change. Kean University's actions were positioned squarely in what Kingdon describes as an "inexpensive program," that is, to regulate and control costs. Kean's elimination of department chairs may be construed as an attempt to regulate faculty control, while the validity of the claim that it would control costs was never borne out by the documents. Clemson University and Temple University reflect Kingdon's second type of inexpensive program, in that their proposals sought to save money through efficiency while growing revenue potential through increased research activity.

5.4 THE OPEN WINDOW

Kingdon refers to “that certain time” when the streams come together, when solutions are joined to problems...windows are opened when there is the appearance of a compelling problem or by *happenings in the political stream* (Kingdon, 2003, p., emphasis added). In each case in this study, the policy window is presumed to have opened when there were indications that the Board would act favorably upon the proposals. This is the only instance that this researcher can claim an occurrence within the academic restructuring process that maps neatly to a policy stage.

In considering application of the policy window metaphor to the approvals of restructuring proposals, I am reminded of the role that messaging plays in political campaigns. Campaign managers pay attention to how their candidate’s message is framed, portrayed, and covered in the media; they manage the message so that it resonates with their target audience and moves them to action. President Clements (Clemson University) and Provost Englert (Temple University) stayed “on message” throughout their campaigns to bring about academic restructuring. Those two leaders are also the ones who appeared to have provided substantially more documentation to their faculty and staff of the nature and rationale for the restructuring—Clements’ “ClemsonForward” plan and Englert’s “White Papers” on restructuring—were blueprints for change, generated and disseminated for review and reaction.

The voices of constituents provide some insight into how well (or not) the presidential messages resonated with different audiences, and how successful (or not) the messages were in speaking to the issues of greatest concern to constituents. But as I considered my reactions to the communications of higher education leaders and the responses by constituents, I realized that the leaders had yet another—and much more significant—audience to persuade: the Board of

Trustees. A university is not a political campaign: faculty cannot vote on matters of administration but they may—as in the case of Temple University—pass a resolution against a proposal or even take a vote of no confidence (Kean University). The interpretation of the communications of higher education leaders changes with the recognition that they—the leaders—are campaigning for the votes of board members, not faculty. I wonder if the proposals for academic restructuring, presented by the institutional leaders in this study to their respective Boards of Trustees, were substantively richer in qualitative and quantitative detail than the missives put forth for constituents.

The political stream reflects the environment in which proposals are raised, debated, defeated or approved. The actions and messages of interest groups emerge, seeking to shape public perception and counter the claims of policy advocates. One might expect this arena to be the source of well-founded, well-reasoned, and informed arguments. However, at Kean University, negative stereotypes of faculty were used to frame one of the problems that administrators were seeking to reverse, that being the problem of finances. Kean administrators publicly portrayed some faculty as greedy and as elitists who had access to part-time jobs with full-time pay. Kean faculty made equally good use of the media to shape the debate in the public sphere, portraying the actions of Kean's president as retaliatory and reckless.

It is interesting to note that the institution facing the most vocal opposition—Kean University—was also the institution whose Board of Trustees approved an exceptionally disruptive change to traditional academic structure. Temple University's board approved only some of Englert's proposals, but it cannot be discerned how or if the faculty senate's resolution impacted the Board's deliberations. Clemson University's board approved the restructuring proposal in its entirety.

Just how, if, and when the voices of constituents impact the deliberations and decisions of Boards of Trustees is significantly beyond the scope of this study. It is possible that constituent voices play *less* of a role in the actions of Boards than faculty, staff, students, and alumni might assume, or desire/wish.

6.0 CONCLUSIONS

The research questions for this study were developed in response to the recognition that the rhetoric of reorganization efforts among institutions of higher education often cite academic structure as an obstacle in the realization of organizational goals. The research questions evolved from the literature review, which was undertaken to ascertain the provenance of the traditional academic structure found in many colleges and universities in the United States, to become acquainted with the development and characteristics of academic culture, and to explore the dualism of faculty as administrators. The literature review suggests that academic structure and culture are powerful influencers within higher education, but that new challenges in higher education have some leaders pondering the opportunities that could be realized *if* academic structures were altered. The research questions for the study sought to explore evidence of the mindset of higher education leaders towards academic culture and structure as they put forth proposals for academic restructuring, and how those attitudes and beliefs were supported or refuted by institutional constituents, primarily faculty.

The communications of the higher education leaders and constituents portrayed in this study demonstrate specific examples of institutional efforts to adapt, adjust, and thrive in a changing and challenging environment. How those challenges are portrayed, and what adaptive steps were proposed and/or enacted, are indicative of different beliefs and attitudes towards academic culture and structure.

6.1 LIMITATIONS

The scope of the study is restricted in several ways. The chief limitation is that the data arise from only three institutions. Using documents as the sole source of data presents a number of limitations, including:

- Insufficient detail: documents are produced for some purpose other than research;
- Low retrievability: documentation is sometimes difficult to retrieve or not retrievable; and
- Biased selectivity: in an organizational context, the available documents are likely to be aligned with corporate policies and procedures and with the agenda of the organization's principals (Bowen, 2009, p. 31-32).

Therefore, the study is limited by the quality and scope of data recorded and made available by the institutions and from other sources. Relationships between and among individuals, or the presence of "hidden agendas," in the formulation of the reorganizing policy likewise cannot be discerned from the data.

6.2 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY AND IMPLICATIONS

The growing practice of academic reorganization at colleges and universities in the United States often involves the dismantling of traditional academic departments, the organization of faculty as communities of scholars within disciplines, and the resultant reduction in faculty serving as department chairs.

The significance of the study is in identifying correspondence between (a) assertions in the literature concerning the power, influence, and traditions of academic culture and structure in higher education, and (b) references to academic culture and structure in the documents describing the policy process of academic reorganization initiatives.

The implications for the study are in the ways higher education leaders think about and communicate academic restructuring initiatives. The study should challenge higher education leaders to examine their own biases towards academic culture and structure and to identify how and if those biases affect the premise for the restructuring.

A recurring theme in the literature, and in the constituent voices of Clemson and Temple universities, is that faculty do not believe academic structure is to blame for the absence of interdisciplinary research; rather, they cite underlying perceptions about the relative value of different disciplines and the lack of respect given by some disciplines to others. This finding should encourage institutions to consider alternate steps to encourage cross disciplinary collaboration. Addressing cultural considerations may be easier and far less complicated and disruptive than formal restructuring of academic units.

Future research on this topic could include deeper exploration of the factual basis for the rhetoric of restructuring, specifically, an analysis of exactly what aspects of academic structure are seen as obstacles to institutional goals in this new economy of higher education. Future research could explore more fully from the faculty's perspective the experience of restructuring and the degree to which institutional objectives were achieved. Future research could also address how and why the belief that benchmarking against, and emulation of, more "successful" institutions, has become the holy grail of higher education.

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE SELECTION CRITERIA

Table 8 Sample Selection Criteria

<i>Criteria</i>	<i>Clemson University</i>	<i>Kean University</i>	<i>Temple University</i>
<i>Occurrence:</i> Within the past ten years	Restructuring plan approved by Board of Trustees 2015	Restructuring approved by Board of Trustees in 2010	Restructuring approved by Board of Trustees in 2012
<i>Impact:</i> Substantive reconstitution of colleges or schools	Restructuring resulting in new seven colleges.	Elimination of departments and removal of 38 department chairs from their posts	Consolidation of schools and departments.
<i>Reason:</i> Promote interdisciplinarity, increase research, transform institution	To enhance quality, build faculty capacity and create new degree programs and better student services.	The replace the “old system” that “doesn’t work,” and to generate additional research revenue.	To respond to state cuts, to “enhance the student experience,” and to focus on academic excellence.
<i>Documents:</i> Readily available via publicly accessible sources	Range of documents obtained include those that are official (from President’s office or university press releases) as well as coverage by external media. Internal constituent voices discovered in reports from the faculty senate and student newspaper.	Range of documents obtained include those that are official (from President’s office or university press releases) as well as coverage by external media. Internal constituent voices discovered in reports from the faculty senate and student newspaper.	Range of documents obtained include those that are official (from President’s office or university press releases) as well as coverage by external media. Internal constituent voices discovered in reports from the faculty senate and student newspaper.
<i>Status:</i> Major progress towards reorganization	Reorganization approved 2015.	Reorganization approved 2010.	Reorganization approved 2012.
<i>Leadership:</i> Status of leadership since initiation of reorganization	New President 2015	President is still in place, having survived votes of no confidence	New President 201; interim President back to faculty ranks.

APPENDIX B

CLEMSON UNIVERSITY DOCUMENTS

Table 9 Clemson University Documents

<i>Title</i>	<i>Source</i>
2020 Guiding Principles	Institution
Academic Structure 2009	Institution
AIG executive sees bright future for Clemson business education	External media
Clements lauds 2015 accomplishments, sets sights on even greater heights at faculty meeting	Institution
Clemson Board approves reorganization	Institution
Clemson faculty senate meeting	Faculty Senate
Clemson Forward	Institution
Clemson Forward Plan Draft	Institution
Clemson Road Map 2020	Institution
Clemson task force recommends changes in how school presents its history	External media
Clemson trustees back academic reorganization	External media
Clemson trustees OK academic overhaul	External media
Clemson university faculty, staff favor reorganization	External media
Clemson trustees endorse academic reorganization to support new strategic plan	External media
Clemson University-About	Institution
Clemson University-Barker to retire	Institution
Clemson University-Board of Trustees	Institution
Clemson University-Budget Document	Institution
Clemson University-Frequently Asked Questions	Institution
Clemson University-Harvey Gantt	Institution
Clemson University-James P. Clements	Institution
Clemson University-Mini Fact Book	Institution
Clemson University-Strategic plan update	Institution
Clemson University-The Inauguration of James P. Clements	Institution

Table 9 (continued)

College restructuring discussion by engineering faculty	Faculty
Dear Clemson Family	Institution
Debate rages over Clemson's Tillman Hall	External media
Discussion of the pending split of the College of Engineering and Science-Open Forum Essay	Faculty Senate
Faculty Senate Minutes May 2015	Faculty Senate
Faculty Senate Minutes August 2015	Faculty Senate
Faculty Senate Minutes September 2015	Faculty Senate
Faculty Senate report to Clemson Board of Trustees	Institution
Inside Clemson 2020 Forward	Institution
Inside Clemson Next Steps for 2020 Forward	Institution
Minutes, Teleconference of the Clemson University Board of Trustees	Institution
Minutes, Graduate Student Senate, September 2015	Constituents
Our new business school and building	Blog
Planning Chronology & Milestones	Institution
Survey: Clemson University faculty, staff, favor reorganizing college structure	Institution
The Administration of Vulnerability	Blog

APPENDIX C

KEAN UNIVERSITY DOCUMENTS

Table 10 Kean University Documents

<i>Title</i>	<i>Voice</i>
Academic changes at Kean U.	Institution/letter to the editor
American Federation of Teachers-About	External Assoc.
Concerned Kean University Faculty Blog	Blog
Departments without chairs	External media
Disappearing departments	External media
Kean faculty vote no confidence	External media
Kean Federation of Teachers minutes, October 2010	Labor union
Kean Federation of Teachers, April 2010	Labor union
Kean pride the theme of President Farahi address	Student newspaper
Kean reorganization underway	Student newspaper
Kean Strategic Plan Final	Institution
Kean University's 2011 Self Study Report	Accrediting body
Kean Univ. gets passing grade as it aims to keep accreditation	External media
Kean University restructuring plan will eliminate dept. chairs	External media
Kean Univ. to elim. depts.. majors to deal with budget shortfall	External media
Kean University President earns mixed marks	External media
Kean University president survives a crucible of controversies	External media
Kean University's trustees back its president	External media
Kean University-About	Institution
Kean University-Annual Budget FY2015	Institution
Kean University-Board of Trustees	Institution
Kean University-Frequently asked questions	Institution
Kean University-President's office	Institution
Kean University-Office of Institutional Research Fact Sheet 15	Institution
Leiter Reports: A Philosophy Blog	Blog
Letter to President Farahi from the AAUP	External organization
Middle States Commission on Higher Education	External organization
National Collegiate Athletic Association	External organization
National teachers union chief criticizes Kean Univ. leadership	External organization
The Tower Vol. 10 Iss.01	Constituents

APPENDIX D

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY DOCUMENTS

Table 11 Temple University Documents

<i>Title</i>	<i>Source</i>
Aligning priorities: faculty reject Provost's White Paper	Institution
A message from Paul LaFollette	Faculty Senate
A response to Provost Englert's white paper	Faculty Senate
Board approves realignment, acting president, at latest meeting	Institution
Herald 42(3)	Faculty newsletter
Englert appointed a chancellor by Board of Trustees	Institution
On the Budget, Part ii	Faculty
My response to the Provost's proposal to create school of Edu.	Blog
Petition support Temple University's Interdisciplinary Programs	Online petition
Proposal for the Creation of a Ctr. Fine and Performing Arts	Institution
Provost forwards white paper	Institution
Provost outlines potential restructuring in White Paper	Institution
Provost outlines possible academic restructuring	Institution
Restructuring and one related matter	Blog
Richard Englert to serve as Temple's Acting President	Institution
Schools realigned by the Board of Trustees	Institution
SED depts.. become part of Tyler's Div. Arch. & Environ. design	Institution
SVP highlights importance of Commonwealth Support	Institution
Temple Appropriations Request FY12-13	Institution
Temple Faculty Senate minutes 2011.12.09	Faculty Senate
Temple Faculty Senate Special Senate meeting minutes 02.08.12	Faculty Senate
Temple Faculty Senate minutes 05.2012	Faculty Senate
Temple GenEd responds to restructuring	
Temple provost's ideas for cost-cutting stir campus debate	External media
Temple University Faculty Senate Resolution on the White Paper	Faculty Senate
Temple University-Board of Trustees	Institution
Temple University-College Portrait	Institution
Temple University-History	Institution
Temple University-Fact Book	Institution
Temple University-Proposed Budget 2015-2016	Institution
White Paper on Restructuring the Provost's Portfolio	Institution

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